

THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

MARCH 1952

Research and Social Work	Stuart A. Queen	1
Psychiatric Social Work and Research	Jean M. Arsenian	15
Some Aspects of Public Welfare—Today and Tomorrow	Fred K. Hoehler	30
Some Recent Public Welfare Developments	Robert T. Lansdale	37
Educational Experience in Social Work and Medicine on a Domiciliary Medical Care Service	Beatrice S. Stone and Henry J. Bakst, M.D.	42
How Shall a Community Measure the Adequacy of Its Welfare Program? Ellery F. Reed		53
Italian Social Work Education	Charles T. O'Reilly	59
Welfare Fares Well: A Chronicle from Norway	Thomas Dawes Eliot	65

Notes and Comment by the Editor:

Louis Braille, a Pioneer in Social Welfare.—An Institute of War and Peace.—A New History of Man.—International Relief and the Refugees.—The Arab Refugees.—Women and the Amendments to the Social Security Act.—A New Federal Health Commission.—A Grant to Aid Graduate Work in Southern Universities.—Rehabilitation for Veterans.—Government Life Insurance for Veterans.—The Red Cross and Prisoners of War.—Regulation of Private Employment Agencies.—World Food Conditions and Future Outlook.—Physical Disabilities of Public Aid Recipients.—Fees in Family Service Agencies.—“Fugitive Fathers.”—The Brussels Migration Conference.—English Children and the “Movies.”—Women on Juries.—Young People Absent from School.—UNICEF Is Five Years Old.—An Anti-Genocide Resolution.—A Union Health Center Expands.—New York Plans “Cavalcade.”—The Ford Foundation.—Professor Lindeman on Lincoln and the Rights of Habeas Corpus.—Welfare Pamphlets and Reports.—Notes from the Professional Schools.—In Memoriam: Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch, 1867-1951; Robert B. Irwin, 1884-1951 73

Letter to the Editor: Politics and Social Workers, by Victor S. Yarros, 102

Book Reviews		103
Reviews of Government Reports and Public Documents		125
Contributors		134

(For full Contents see inside pages)

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THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

A QUARTERLY DEVOTED TO THE SCIENTIFIC AND
PROFESSIONAL INTERESTS OF SOCIAL WORK

Edited by

THE FACULTY OF THE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SERVICE ADMINISTRATION
OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

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THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

Vol. XXVI

CONTENTS FOR MARCH 1952

No. 1

FRONTISPICE: LOUIS BRAILLE, 1809-1852	facing	1
RESEARCH AND SOCIAL WORK	STUART A. QUEEN	1
RESEARCH IN PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK	JEAN M. ARSENIAN	15
SOME ASPECTS OF PUBLIC WELFARE—TODAY AND TOMORROW		
	FRED K. HOEHLER	30
SOME RECENT PUBLIC WELFARE DEVELOPMENTS	ROBERT T. LANSDALE	37
EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE IN SOCIAL WORK AND MEDICINE ON A DOMI- CILIARY MEDICAL CARE SERVICE		
	BEATRICE S. STONE AND HENRY J. BAKST, M.D.	42
HOW SHALL A COMMUNITY MEASURE THE ADEQUACY OF ITS WELFARE PROGRAM?	ELLERY F. REED	53
ITALIAN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION	CHARLES T. O'REILLY	59
WELFARE FARES WELL: A CHRONICLE FROM NORWAY	THOMAS DAWES ELIOT	65

NOTES AND COMMENT BY THE EDITOR:

Louis Braille, a Pioneer in Social Welfare, 73.—An Institute of War and Peace, 73.—A New History of Man, 74.—International Relief and the Refugees, 74.—The Arab Refugees, 75.—Women and the Amendments to the Social Security Act, 76.—A New Federal Health Commission, 76.—A Grant To Aid Graduate Work in Southern Universities, 77.—Rehabilitation for Veterans, 78.—Government Life Insurance for Veterans, 79.—The Red Cross and Prisoners of War, 82.—Regulation of Private Employment Agencies, 83.—World Food Conditions and Future Outlook, 83.—Physical Disability of Public Aid Recipients, 84.—Fees in Family Service Agencies, 85.—"Fugitive Fathers," 86.—The Brussels Migration Conference, 86.—English Children and the "Movies," 87.—Women on Juries, 87.—Young People Absent from School, 88.—UNICEF Is Five Years Old, 88.—An Anti-Genocide Resolution, 89.—A Union Health Center Expands, 89.—New York Plans "Cavalcade," 90.—The Ford Foundation, 90.—Professor Lindeman on Lincoln and the Rights of Habeas Corpus, 92.—Welfare Pamphlets and Reports, 93.—Notes from the Professional Schools, 95.—*In Memoriam*: Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch, 1867-1951, 100.—Robert B. Irwin, 1884-1951, 100.

Letters to the Editor: Politics and Social Workers, by Victor S. Yarros, 102

BOOK REVIEWS

Daniel Aaron, <i>Men of Good Hope: A Story of American Progressives</i>	WALTER W. PETTIT	103
Eileen L. Younghusband, <i>Social Work in Britain: A Supplementary Report on the Employment and Training of Social Workers</i>	ARLIEN JOHNSON	103
C. Wright Mills, <i>White Collar: The American Middle Classes</i>	W. HARDY WICKWAR	106
John Strawhorn and William Boyd (eds.), <i>Ayrshire: Vol. I of the Third Statistical Account of Scotland</i>	JOHN S. MORGAN	106

[Contents continued on following page]

C. Gilbert Wrenn, <i>Student Personnel Work in College</i>	ROBERT C. WOELLNER	107
Ruth Gilbert, R.N., <i>The Public Health Nurse and Her Patient</i> . Rev. ed.	MARY M. DUNLAP	108
Norman Thomas, <i>A Socialist's Faith</i>	VICTOR S. YARROS	109
Edward C. Banfield, <i>Government Project</i>	GITTA U. MEIER	110
Susanne Schulze (ed.), <i>Creative Group Living in a Children's Institution: A Symposium</i>	ETHEL VERRY	111
Alfred E. Cohn and Claire Lingg, <i>The Burden of Diseases in the United States</i>	NEVA R. DEARDORFF	112
Lucy Freeman, <i>Fight against Fears: A Very Personal Account of a Woman's Psychoanalysis</i>	CHARLOTTE TOWLE	113
Henry S. Maas (ed.), <i>Adventure in Mental Health: Psychiatric Social Work with the Armed Forces in World War II</i>	LYNDELL SCOTT	113
T. Cuyler Young (ed.), <i>Near Eastern Culture and Society: A Symposium</i>	W. HARDY WICKWAR	115
J. A. R. Pimlott, <i>Public Relations and American Democracy</i>	V. S. Y.	116

BRIEF NOTICES

J. R. Rees, M.D., <i>The Health of the Mind</i> ; Lillian M. Gilbreth, <i>Living with Our Children</i> ; Florence Rondell and Ruth Michaels, <i>The Adopted Family</i> ; David M. Dorin, <i>Patient's Doing Finel</i> ; Edmund H. Volkart (ed.), <i>Social Behavior and Personality: Contributions of W. I. Thomas to Theory and Social Research</i> ; A. J. Jafee and Charles D. Stewart, <i>Man-power Resources and Utilization</i> ; Betty Tableman, <i>Governmental Organization in Metropolitan Areas</i> ; Margaret Mead, <i>The School in American Culture</i> ; Alice Tisdale Hobart, <i>The Serpent-wreathed Staff</i> ; Clare and Harris Wofford, Jr., <i>India Afire</i> ; Kenneth Scott Latourette, <i>A Short History of the Far East</i> (rev. ed.); G. F. Plant, C.B.E., <i>Oversea Settlement: Migration from the United Kingdom to the Dominions</i> ; Steuart Henderson Britt (ed.), <i>Selected Readings in Social Psychology</i> ; G. Bromley Oxnam, <i>Personalities in Social Reform</i> ; Louise Ware, <i>George Foster Peabody, Banker, Philanthropist, Publicist</i>	116
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REVIEWS OF GOVERNMENT REPORTS AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

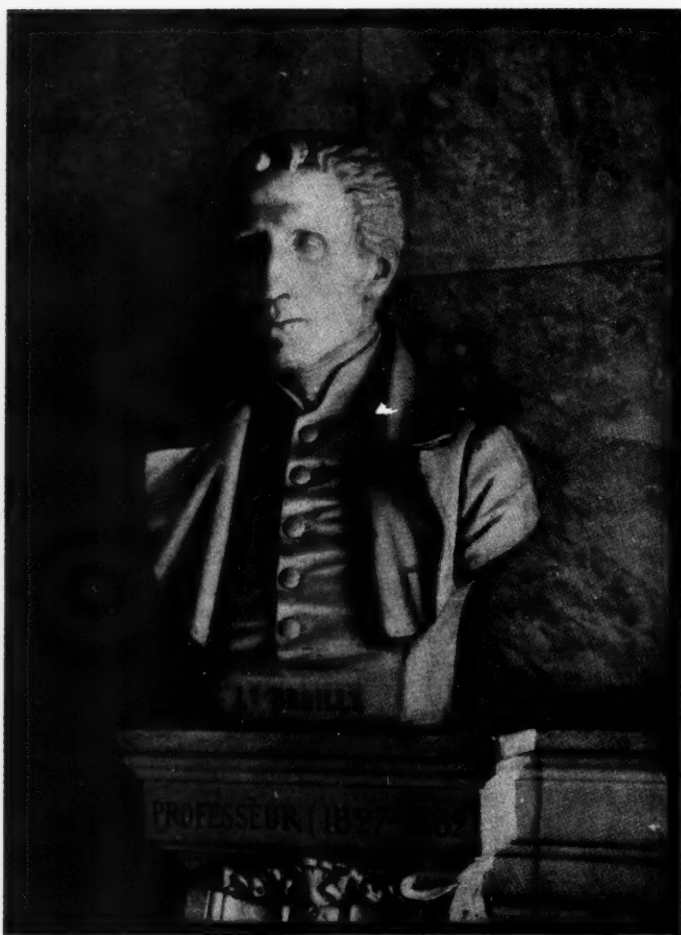
<i>Annual Report on Child and Youth Welfare: Summaries of Annual Reports from Governments for the Year 1948-49</i> (United Nations Department of Social Affairs)	MILDRED ARNOLD	125
<i>Illinois State Budget for the Biennium July 1, 1951, to June 30, 1953</i> (Adlai E. Stevenson, Governor)	ALTON A. LINFORD	126
<i>Outlook for Women in Social Case Work with Families</i> (U.S. Women's Bureau)	HELEN H. PERLMAN	127
<i>Texas State Department of Public Welfare, Annual Report, 1951</i>	A. A. L.	127
<i>The Four Million: Report of the New York State Citizens' Committee of One Hundred on Children and Youth</i>	RICHARD EDDY	129
<i>Children and Youth in Illinois</i> (Governor's Committee for Illinois on the Midcentury White House Conference for Children and Youth)		129
<i>Displaced Persons Commission, Fourth Semiannual Report to the President and Congress</i>		131
<i>Report of the Ministry of Health for the Year Ended 31 March 1950, Part I</i> (Great Britain)		133

CONTRIBUTORS	134
------------------------	-----

07
08
09
10
11
12
13
13
15
16

16

25
26
27
27
29
29
31
33
34



From French, "From Homer to Helen Keller" (American Foundation for the Blind, Inc.)

LOUIS BRAILLE, 1809-52

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THE SOCIAL SERVICE REVIEW

Volume XXVI

MARCH 1952

Number 1

RESEARCH AND SOCIAL WORK

STUART A. QUEEN

THE historians of social work trace its origins to direct mutual aid among villagers, parishioners, guildsmen, and members of other face-to-face groups. When a neighbor or fellow-craftsman suffered misfortune, someone spontaneously helped him out. There was no committee, no relief fund, no investigation, no therapeutic interview. Somebody was in trouble; somebody who already knew him gave a helping hand. So long as the contacts were thus direct and the dealings highly personal, there was probably no questioning of results. There was direct visual evidence, and there was probably emotional satisfaction. Everyone "knew" that good had been done, and group morale was doubtless maintained, even though sick persons died, crops failed, floods washed houses away, stolen goods were not recovered, and other "needs" remained unmet. In general, the sight of hungry mouths being fed, fevered brows being soothed, and crying children being comforted combined with expressions of thanks and the warm glow of "helpfulness" to provide all the evidence anyone might want that "good" was being accomplished. As a matter of fact, we may doubt that the question was even raised; and why should it be?

When a stranger knocked at the gate and asked for food or lodging, the case was altered somewhat; but, if he was given aid, it was still on a face-to-face basis. He might pass on, and his benefactor might never know what became of him; but some immediate action had been taken. For the moment hunger was satisfied, pain was relieved, or shelter was provided. The stranger's "God bless you" was both an expression of gratitude and a prayer for the giver. Again it was probably taken for granted that this was a "good deed." Why should anyone ask for "proof"?

It is unnecessary to run through all the stages between the simple helpfulness of one person to his neighbor and the modern scene with its community chests, public assistance, and professional social workers. But whenever personal relationships and personal interests have been uppermost, we may fairly suppose that people have not worried much about "proof." By personal interests we have in mind such things as offers of spiritual benefits in return for contributions to charitable institutions; promises that public relief would protect "quiet folk" against mendicancy, thievery, and demands for higher wages; hopes of personal glory and prestige from being a

"volunteer" or serving on a board. People who are concerned primarily about such personal matters are likely to take it for granted that "It's a wonderful work" and to show surprise if anyone questions the results.

But when organizations grow large and clients mount into the thousands, when contributions of funds leave the actual service to paid professionals—in other words, when direct contact gives way to "remote control"—then questions are likely to be asked: How do you know Agency A should have \$100,000 next year? How do foster-children turn out as compared with those who grow up in orphanages? Is work relief really better than direct relief? What proof is there that playgrounds keep children out of juvenile court? Do not old age pensions encourage young adults to neglect their parents? Why do community chests and member agencies pay such large salaries? Stories of the "hundred neediest families" and campaign appeals may continue to elicit contributions, but more and more people want to know what is being accomplished with their money. At the same time, the professional workers are asking themselves similar questions: What is the best way to achieve our purposes? How can we test organization and procedures? Are there objective measures of results? How can we account for failures and how can their number be reduced?

To answer such questions as these, other professions have carried on extensive research projects. In September, 1946, the American Association of Social Workers devoted an entire issue of its official magazine, the *Compass*, to showing how research has aided in the development of medicine, dentistry, nursing, teaching, librarianship, and other fields, and put forward a program of re-

search for social work. At the 1948 meeting of the National Conference of Social Work, Philip Klein presented a paper, "The Contribution of Research to the Progress of Social Work," which was later distributed in pamphlet form by the American Association of Social Workers.

Mr. Klein proposed five types of research to serve the growing profession: (1) "studies to establish, identify, and measure the need for service," (2) "studies to measure the services offered," (3) "studies to test, gauge, and evaluate results of social work operation," (4) "studies to test the efficacy of specific techniques" compared with alternative techniques, and (5) "studies in methodology of research."

Still, there is resistance to social work research. Apparently some people who are accustomed to operating on the basis of "faith, hope, and charity" find it difficult to put their cherished programs and procedures to the test of cold statistics and logical analysis. Others seem to doubt the practicability of subjecting the involved and elusive traits of personality and human relations to objective study. Probably many are so impressed with the urgency of immediate service to people who want help that they cannot find time and energy for a detached examination of the conditions in which their clients find themselves, how these conditions came to be, what social workers hope to accomplish, how they work, what changes take place during and after their activities, which of these changes may be attributed to social work, and what alternative procedures might promote the desired ends more fully or more economically.

But, despite the reluctance of many to accept or support research in the field of social work, there is an increasing num-

ber of research workers attached to councils of social agencies, to state and federal departments, and sometimes to separate local organizations. Experts are frequently called on to make special studies, and a growing volume of research is conducted by teachers and students in schools of social work.

The remainder of this paper will be devoted to a discussion of possible research dealing with the following questions:

1. *Needs and goals.*—What do people expect of social workers? What are the conditions at which they direct their efforts? What changes are they trying to bring about?

2. *Processes.*—What do social workers actually do? What are their general programs? Their specific techniques? In general, what really goes on between them and their clients?

3. *Evidence of change.*—What assurance can we have that change actually takes place in those intangibles to which we refer as "character," "personality," "tension," "adjustment," "welfare"? And, if we can identify change, how can we be sure whether or not it is "due to" given social work processes? But, before we can answer this last question, we must do something about the next group of problems.

4. *Interrelation of factors.*—The question of the effectiveness of social work procedures in "bringing about" given changes in personality, groups, and human relations involves us in the much broader field of the interrelation of factors in social situations and processes. This in turn overlaps, but is not identical with, the problem of causation. We are constantly asking such questions as: What "made" Johnny a delinquent? "Why" did Mr. Jones desert his family? What "brought about" better race rela-

tions in Smithville? Does work relief "produce" better results than ordinary relief does? Later we shall undertake to translate these questions into forms that may be more fruitful bases of inquiry.

5. *Prediction.*—If we succeed in establishing definite relationships between various factors, to which we commonly refer as "cause" and "effect," can we then make dependable predictions about what will happen if we do or do not carry on certain activities? Apparently we do make implicit predictions whenever we engage in a piece of social work. How can we utilize our knowledge (hoped for or achieved) of "concomitance" to make predictions that will be explicit and reliable?

6. *Evaluation.*—Finally, can we say of a given program, procedure, or technique that it is "good" or "bad"? If so, on what grounds? Will our accumulated knowledge of goals, processes, and associated factors afford us a basis for making statements such as this: Supervised playgrounds are good because their establishment is followed by a reduction of street accidents among small children, and no other innovation tried so far is associated with so great a reduction, in so short a time, at the same cost.

NEEDS AND GOALS

People like some of those described in the introduction to this paper may wonder why there should be research into the needs which social work is intended to meet or into the objectives at which it is aimed. As a matter of fact, it is possible that rather limited inquiry may suffice to establish a large measure of consensus. If that should be true, then we could presently say: Here are a number of goals on which the great

majority of American people (or, more modestly, St. Louisans, Fresno County folks, or South Carolinians) are agreed. We hope to achieve them through what is called "social work" or through one of its many varieties. We assume certain needs, which we specify, and express the intention of meeting them through given organizations, programs, procedures, and techniques.

But there is another possibility, namely, that people may not agree. Perhaps social workers, their clients, and the "general public" may have rather different notions of what is needed and what ought to be done. Perhaps members of various ethnic groups, religious faiths, or social classes may express fairly distinct wants and aspirations. If that should be true, then the whole situation would have to be redefined.

Perhaps an illustration may clarify this point. Some years ago a Polish-American widow with three small children came to a social agency asking for financial assistance to meet some accumulated bills and to keep up payments on a little house she was buying. Her "need" and her "goal" were expressed quite simply and concretely. But presently the social workers discovered that the woman had varicose veins and other physical conditions which could not be treated adequately without extended hospitalization. They proposed that she give up the property, use the recovered equity to pay bills, put the small children in temporary boarding homes, and herself go to a hospital. There was obviously a conflict between social workers and client over values involved in keeping the family together, owning a home, and accepting institutionalization. What the agency's board of directors or the officers of the local community fund would

have said about all this must be left to the imagination.

Perhaps more often than we realize "needs" are stated by "socially minded" citizens in terms of the failure of other people to live and behave as they themselves do. In the fall of 1949 a military man who is also a university president made light of the demand for social security. The reaction of many people made it quite evident that there was anything but unanimity about the matter. In general we can say that there is enough evidence of diversity and uncertainty to warrant some careful and systematic inquiry into the wants and aspirations concerning which people turn to social work.

How then shall such an inquiry be conducted? We propose first the analysis of a representative sample of case histories and of group-work records. These should be chosen so as to include all types of direct service in proportion to the numbers of persons or families served. They should also include agencies under public, sectarian, and private nonsectarian auspices in proportion to clientele. In examining these records the research staff would note separately each expression of want, hope, or plan, both explicit and implicit, of both client and social worker. These could then be classified and counted to see the extent of agreement and disagreement between practitioners and clients, between regions, ethnic groups, religious faiths, etc. But because these records are, after all, selective and are the statements of social workers, it would be very desirable to get permission to make wire recordings, at least of first interviews, as a check on the records.

From the items identified in written records and wire recordings it should be possible to make a check list to be used

in short interviews with a random sample of the general population. The purpose of these interviews would be to discover what needs, purposes, services, etc., people identify with social work, and which ones they value highly, esteem lightly, or reject. It would probably be possible to get the names of persons interviewed. In fact, they might be selected at random from the city directory (or directories, if a more general study were made). Then the names could be checked with a social service exchange to see which had been clients of a social agency within a specified period.

In addition to the check list, the interviewers' schedule might well include a few "open-end" questions, such as: What kinds of people go to social agencies? What kinds stay away? Do you know anyone who has been helped by a social agency? Do you know anyone who has been disappointed or turned away by a social agency? What do you think was the reason? (Of course, the term "social agency" would have to be defined in simple terms and illustrated for the benefit of most respondents.)

After data from records and interviews have been classified and treated by such statistical procedures as might seem appropriate, it might be very revealing to turn to formal expressions of purpose in charters, annual reports, press releases, board minutes, etc. These should be taken from the same agencies as those whose records had been analyzed and for the same period, except for original dates of charters, constitutions, and bylaws. Out of this type of study might come evidence that, on the whole, people are pretty well agreed as to what they mean by "social work" and what they expect from it. On the other hand, the study might reveal

sharp differences between the ideas of certain categories of people, or, finally, there might come a picture of confusion. In any case, studies of the kinds to be discussed later should be related definitely to the results of findings about "needs and goals."

PROCESSES

Once we have identified the objectives of social work, we will be ready for an examination of its processes, programs, procedures, and techniques. The diversity of activities included under the general caption "social work" is so great that we need to know in any given instance just what kind of service is being rendered, what knowledge and skills are being utilized. Otherwise we will be in no position to answer such questions as those pertaining to cause and effect, prediction, and evaluation. If we want to know just what social service may be expected to bring about a given result, we must be able to distinguish rather clearly specific activities in which social workers engage. If we want to evaluate the work of an agency, we must be able to identify rather precisely and, within limits, to measure what goes on in that agency. Otherwise our statements will be so general and so vague as to have little merit or utility.

Another problem which grows out of the obvious diversity of social services is this: Is there a common denominator? Are there common elements of knowledge, skill, objectives, social interaction? If so, what are they and what is their significance? To answer these and the questions asked in the preceding paragraph, it will be necessary to engage in what is sometimes called "job analysis."

Let us begin with social group work. In the initial stages of inquiry, one might spend some time simply observing

and writing down what one sees and hears. Perhaps one might supplement this by use of a wire recorder or even of moving pictures, if this could be arranged without disrupting the "normal" course of events.

Presently it would be necessary to establish some categories for classification, subdivision, and measurement. Not only would one need categories for rather specific and separate activities, such as teaching how to pass and catch a basketball or how to debate a motion in a business meeting, but names for configurations and sequences, such as may be involved in teaching consideration for others or in joint planning of a program. Some of the needed concepts would be provided by the group workers in discussion of their activities. Some would be derived from the social sciences, sociology and psychology in particular. Some would doubtless emerge as empirical products of the research in question.

In addition to direct observation, while seeking to establish useful categories, there would be interviews with group workers, their executives, and members of the groups sponsored. Where records exist, they would be read. Out of all this would probably come a rather long list of heterogeneous concepts. These might be grouped in categories of varying inclusiveness on the basis of their happening together "on the job" or on the basis of similarities of the behavior involved. Then they might be submitted to a random sample of group workers for criticism. As a result of their responses, there would doubtless be additions, deletions, substitutions, and regrouping. After this a revised list would be prepared and distributed to the same or a different sample, asking the respondents to indicate the activities in which they engage and, where

possible, the division of their time among them. Thus it might be possible to discover approximately the extent to which group workers are engaged in policing (maintaining order, guarding the safety of persons, protecting property), in working out plans for groups, in aiding the groups in carrying out the plans, in studying the groups as wholes, in studying their individual members, in studying processes, in promotion (making talks, raising money, soliciting members), etc.

Another part of the job analysis would involve continuation and further development of studies of the quality of leadership. Work done at the University of Iowa and at Massachusetts Institute of Technology has identified three rather different types of leader-follower relationship, which, under varying circumstances, have quite different degrees of acceptability to group members. These three types are referred to as "dominating," "laissez faire," and "democratic."

The job analysis of case work would be similar to that of group work in some respects but would perforce depend more on records and less on observation. Here again a check list would be developed, revised, and then utilized to learn what activities occupy the workers' time and in what proportion.

As an example of an inductive study of case work (medical social work in this instance) looking forward to classification, counting, and reporting, we refer to Mrs. Elizabeth Payne's study (M.S.W. thesis, Washington University, 1940). Using only material from records, she analyzed their content, employing a schedule with ten major divisions and over a hundred subdivisions. After cross-tabulating these data in a variety of ways, she identified four major types of medical social cases. These were based on extent of social study, number of

services given, and kinds of relationships established between worker and patient and patient's family. A fairly simple statistical analysis yielded a set of categories that promised to be much more useful in reporting than were the conventional categories based largely on impression.

Still in the realm of "processes" there might well be studies of what is done with and for applicants who are rejected and what happens to them; likewise for applicants who, after initial contact, reject the agency. Other studies might consider the activities of workers in relation to agency policies, case loads, budget, auspices under which the agency operates, etc.

One of the most difficult aspects of job analysis would involve the attempt to identify skills and knowledge utilized in the various types of social work. At the moment, we have no very definite proposals to make, but apparently this inquiry would have to proceed inductively, utilizing material already discussed, i.e., records, interviews, recordings, and observation. But it will probably be difficult in many instances to decide whether the social worker knew or guessed that certain things were true and whether he or she actually possessed a supposed skill or "just happened" to do something in a given way.

This is a very sketchy statement of needs and possibilities of job analysis. It could obviously not outline a detailed program of research. Perhaps it has indicated the nature and importance of systematic re-examination of social work processes.

EVIDENCE OF CHANGE

Assuming that we are well on the way to identifying goals and processes, our next task is to see whether we can determine whether change has taken

place in the clients and their situations. As a matter of fact, it may not be difficult to demonstrate that some change has occurred, but it is much harder to show what kind of change and how much change has gone on.

Over the years there have been some significant studies of this sort. In 1924, Sophie Van Senden Theis made a report to the New York Charities Aid Association entitled *How Foster Children Turn Out*. While this study was not without merit, it was largely impressionistic and descriptive. In the 1930's Sheldon and Eleanor Glueck published a series of books reporting their findings on what happened to delinquents after leaving correctional institutions in Massachusetts. These studies set up rather definite, though somewhat limited, criteria of adjustment and applied them to former inmates five, ten, and fifteen years after parole or discharge. A great deal of time and money was invested in obtaining accurate information from and concerning the ex-delinquents.

More recently the Community Service Society of New York has been making some studies of "movement" in social case work. The research group, headed by J. McV. Hunt, depended very heavily on records of the agency, on the assumption that these contained a "representative sample of transactions between client and social worker." One of the early stages of the study involved use of a "distress-relief quotient," based on classification of clauses in the record. This device appeared to be reliable, in the sense of getting fairly uniform ratings from various persons using it, but it lacked validity in the sense that persons who made independent estimates of change offered ratings quite different from those who employed the "DRQ."

Later the New York group devised a six-point scale for rating "movement"

in cases, using as criteria: (1) changes in adaptive ability or efficiency, (2) changes in disabling habits and conditions, (3) changes in attitude or understanding as verbalized by the client, and (4) changes in the environmental situation. These four groups of items seem appropriate and capable of sufficiently objective definition to be usable, but what bothers us is that the placement of any client on the six-point scale with reference to any given criterion has been largely a matter of the opinion of the rater. It is true that ratings of the same case by social workers and students showed a fairly high intercorrelation and that the coefficients of correlation increased with the professional experience of the raters. But we cannot help wondering whether this may not have been an expression of greater community of bias. Also, we cannot help wishing for criteria which could really be measured rather than rated.

Most of the other devices with which we are familiar have similar limitations. The projective techniques, such as the Rorschach and Thematic Apperception tests, may be very useful in identifying changes in attitudes and emotional reactions, but they can hardly be said to offer precise measurements. The Rundquist-Sletto test of morale also leaves something to be desired. Certain information tests, certain data from physical examinations, and certain kinds of environmental data pertaining to housing, employment, and availability of service facilities are probably most amenable to quantitative treatment.

Under the circumstances it seems wise to use a combination of methods and devices. One may start out with the analysis of case records, using some such scale of "movement" as that

employed by the Community Service Society of New York. But it would appear wise also to follow the clients firsthand over a period of time and perhaps, with their consent, to give them a variety of tests. I can almost hear my case-work friends objecting to this "interference" with the "relationship" between worker and client; and I must admit that this sort of procedure might introduce something so disturbing that these cases would not be representative.

Obviously the measurement of change in clients and their situations will not be easy, but it must be attempted. Otherwise it must be admitted that social work can operate only on the basis of faith and hope, with no possibility of verification. If that is the case, it should be honestly admitted. However, I am convinced from what has been accomplished already that it is possible to achieve increasing objectivity and quantification and thereby to identify and measure the changes that take place in connection with social work of many kinds.

INTERRELATION OF FACTORS

Even while we are searching for suitable criteria and measures of change, we will be asking these further questions: How can we know whether social work has anything to do with the changes that take place? What relationships can be demonstrated between particular social work processes and specified changes in personalities and situations? Under what conditions is a given social work procedure most frequently accompanied or followed by results sought by practitioners, clients, sponsors, or any combination of them? What difference does it make whether given persons do or do not have the experience of a given social work program, say,

scouting, probation, foster-home care, public housing, social hygiene?

Studies of change or movement have to do with "before and after." But now we are concerned with what is commonly called "cause and effect," perhaps more appropriately "concomitance." In other words, we are seeking to discover the relationships between factors involved in a situation in which social work of some kind is going on. This seems to call for experimentation, or as close an approximation to it as we can achieve. Thus we might select two lots of unemployed men, matching them as closely as possible and then offering intensive case work to one lot while merely giving the other lot monthly checks. We would follow the two sets of men for some convenient period of time, recording their behavior and circumstances as these changed. We would review them carefully and try to discover whether one lot had changed more than the other, in what ways they had changed, and what headway they had made toward avowed goals.

Assuming that the responsible administrators would permit the experiment, we would first have to study the men before dividing them into the experimental and control groups. We would need descriptive data (age, occupation, etc.), social history, and probably the results of some physical, psychometric, and sociometric tests. These data would be needed for the proper matching and selection of our samples, as well as for comparing each lot before and after the period chosen. Then we would need to recheck the men at the close of the experimental period, and, if possible, follow them for some time afterward. Now if, other things being equal, the recipients of case work should change more than the other men and in

a consistent direction—one desired by themselves and by the social workers—we should have grounds for believing that the association was not accidental but was essential to the attainment of the objective (maintenance or improvement of health, morale, family unity, or whatever it may be). If, on the other hand, there should prove to be no difference between the two lots of men, or if the differences were statistically not significant, or if they were the reverse of what might have been expected, then we must say that the evidence does not support the notion that the objectives sought are dependent upon intensive case work.

Note that the performance of an experiment such as we have just sketched is dependent upon the permission of some administrative authority. As a matter of fact, this is usually not obtainable. Administrators are limited by law or by agency policy, by popular pressures, and by their own convictions. Whether justifiably or not, they are unlikely to subject their clients to experimentation by social scientists. Hence it is frequently necessary to have recourse to what Chapin calls "ex post facto experimentation."

This may be illustrated by Carpenter's study of "Scouts and Non-Scouts in St. Louis" (A.M. thesis, Washington University, 1938). Because he obviously could not direct the future of several hundred boys, putting some into the Boy Scout organization and keeping others out, he got his information "after the fact." He assembled data from and concerning 400 high-school boys. From the information in hand he separated those boys who had and those who did not have experience in scouting. Then he compared the two samples as to family income, education, politics,

religious affiliation, and many other items pertaining to the time when the boys were twelve years old. From this he discovered that the two lots of boys differed in several respects, which indicated that for some reason scouting was "selective."

The next step was to choose 100 Scouts (or ex-Scouts) and match them as closely as possible with 100 non-Scouts, in order to reduce the selective factors to a minimum before comparing the two lots after one of them had spent at least a year in the Boy Scouts. When he finally made the comparison, he found some interesting differences and some similarities which had not been anticipated. Now, regardless of the details of this particular study, here is a type of research procedure which seems most likely to answer the question: To what extent may the changes that take place be attributed to social work?

Similar procedures may be used to determine what particular processes or techniques are most frequently accompanied or followed by success in attaining given objectives. In other words, by the careful comparison of experimental and control groups, chosen in advance or *ex post facto*, it should be possible to substitute fairly objective knowledge for impressions about the relative significance of Miss Richmond's type of "social diagnosis" and of more modern "psychic exploration," of "complete" case work in a clinic and of "steering" patients to affiliated agencies, of institutional and of foster-home care for given types of children, of stereotyped programs of group work and of those which are more flexible, etc.

It is not always possible or even necessary to utilize a control group in the search for factors associated with success or failure. Let us illustrate with

a co-operative research project in medical social work at Washington University. It has long been known that many chronic, ambulatory patients do not follow the regimen laid down for them by clinic staffs. It has not been known what factors are consistently associated with the extent to which patients follow their medical social programs. However, a number of possible explanations have been suggested: Perhaps the patients do not understand or remember their instructions. Perhaps they are financially unable to carry through. Perhaps members of the family obstruct. Perhaps there is some emotional blocking within the patient himself.

The first possibility was dealt with by asking separately the patient and the clinic staff (in person or in the record) what was recommended and what reason was given. The extent of agreement was sufficiently high to indicate that this part of the service program had been effectively performed. Moreover, there was little difference between the degree of understanding on the part of those who followed the regime fully, in part, and not at all.

Testing of the second hypothesis involved, first, learning the complete income of the patient and his family and then dividing this by the total of a standard minimum budget provided by a home economics service. The second step involved development of an *ad hoc* scale for rating the extent to which a patient followed his regimen. The third was the computation of a coefficient of correlation between the percentage of economic "adequacy" and the percentage of "following."

Family co-operation or obstruction was treated simply as present or absent. The greatest difficulties were encountered in identifying and manipulating

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evidence concerning emotional resistance. No scaling was attempted—perhaps this is not practicable—but various questions were asked during the research interviews concerning relations with clinic staff, attitudes toward the illness, attitudes toward authority, etc. Answers to these questions, coupled with elimination of most of the other possible explanations of “failure,” indicated that here was the crux of the issue. Further work needs to be done to determine more precisely the nature of the emotional resistance, its origins, its objects, and possible means of its reduction or elimination.

Again our concern is not with the details of this particular study but with a general method of finding out what factors are associated with success and failure, as defined, in a given type of social work.

PREDICTION OF OUTCOME

Presumably, if we can determine the interrelations of factors in given types of situations and processes, we will be in a position to predict what may happen in the future. For example, suppose that we should discover that boys with certain traits of health, intelligence, economic status, religious affiliation, habits, and attitudes respond readily to appeals to join sponsored clubs, while boys with certain other traits rarely join them; suppose, further, that we should have information on these points concerning a representative sample of the boys in a given area; then we would have a basis for predicting the probable response to a promotional campaign to obtain members for “character-building agencies.” Unfortunately, we do not often, if ever, have information of the kinds assumed above. Hence we make more or less shrewd guesses or just take

a chance that desired results will follow our efforts. In other words, most social work programs, and indeed, most social action proceed on the basis of unverified impressions and blind chance. (In saying this, I do not mean to imply that the guesses are all bad but simply that they are guesses rather than predictions founded on specified data.)

One field in which there have been several serious attempts to develop prediction is that of criminology. More than twenty years ago a group in Illinois headed by E. W. Burgess devised a scale for predicting probable outcome on parole. Since then there have been a dozen other efforts along the same line. The procedure is usually somewhat as follows.

First, a study is made of several hundreds or thousands of men who have been paroled, separating the “successful” from the “failures” (defined concretely as those who violate terms of parole and those who conform to them). Then certain uniform data are obtained concerning each man, e.g., nature of offense, number of associates, type of criminal (first offender, occasional offender, habitual offender), length of sentence imposed, prison term actually served, punishment record in prison, age at time of parole, formal schooling, work record, intelligence quotient, various attitudes and habits, general personality type, etc.

Next, the degree of association between each of these factors and the “success” on parole is computed and the discriminatory value of the item is determined. Sometimes weights are assigned to various items in accordance with the extent to which they differentiate successful and unsuccessful parolees. Then the significant items are combined in a scale, which is applied to the

information in hand concerning the men under study. It usually turns out that the combination of items in a scale is more useful than any of the separate items for differentiating the successes and failures. When this is true, the scale is ready for use in screening new applicants for parole. The next step is to follow the men on parole for specified periods in order to test the predictions.

As a matter of fact, none of the schemes employed to date has been as accurate as was hoped. Nevertheless, they have been useful in reducing the margin of error and are part of the routine procedure in at least one state. It seems likely that their value will increase in proportion as we discover more accurate means of measuring attitudes—for example, what we referred to as “emotional resistance” in the preceding section.

EVALUATION OF SOCIAL WORK

By this time it should be unnecessary for us to say that research has nothing to offer in the way of support for propositions to the effect that a given bit of social work is good or bad in general and at large. But if social researchers are moderately successful in performing the tasks outlined in the foregoing sections of this paper, then they should be able to go on and say of given programs or techniques something like this: When technique A is used under condition B, it is followed by behavior C three times out of four; no other known technique is followed so frequently by the behavior sought; but technique D, which “succeeds” two times out of four, is only half as expensive in time and money as technique A. Therefore, if the objectives of the agency or program demand a maximum of C, regardless of

cost, A is the “best” technique. But if cost is an important consideration, D may be considered the “better” technique.

Perhaps this kind of statement is too abstract to mean much to the reader. A concrete illustration may make clearer the nature and the possibilities of evaluation. In the winter of 1947-1948, there was a campaign in Cincinnati to inform the citizens about the United Nations. The promoters of this campaign also wanted to test the efficacy of their efforts. So they enlisted the co-operation of the National Opinion Research Center to study the situation before, during, and after the educational program. In the end it was possible to give a very definite answer to the question: Was the campaign a success or not?

The goal was to inform previously uninformed citizens of Cincinnati about the United Nations. The program included meetings, lectures, discussions, pamphlets, posters, radio broadcasts, films, etc. The “movement” or change was measured by the difference between responses of persons (a presumably representative sample) interviewed before and after the campaign. The relation of the campaign to the results was indicated in four ways: (1) interviewees’ recalling items pertaining to the program, the United Nations, or international affairs, (2) interviewees’ participation in organized groups concerned about the United Nations in particular or international affairs in general, (3) corresponding changes that took place in cities where no such program was carried on, and (4) identification of other factors which might account for any change. While the Cincinnati study displays some interesting procedures as well as results, there are other cases in which it would be wise to obtain reports

of overt behavior as well as verbal responses.

Several years ago a group at Washington University prepared a plan for a study (never carried out, for reasons we need not discuss here) of relationships between religious groups and of a program for modifying them. Besides information and attitude questions on a schedule, the proposed study would have included specific data about activities of religious groups and their representatives—e.g., employment of persons of other faiths, participation in clubs or sports with persons of other faiths, efforts to suppress activities and organizations, such as planned-parent-hood clinics, “released time” from public schools for religious instruction, public funds for services to parochial schools, etc. Information would have been sought through observation, newspaper files, personal informants, and public statements of representatives of various faiths. The study would have started at least six months before the experimental program, itself to last a year, and would have continued a year after the close of the intensive campaign. We regret that the study could not have been made, not merely because of what it might have revealed in the particular case, but because of what might have been learned about methods of carrying on such research.

CONCLUSION

To sum the whole thing up, the complexity of present-day community life and of social work have led people to ask questions which cannot satisfactorily be answered offhand. They want to have definite and verified information about goals, processes, changes in clients, “causes” of changes, prediction of probable outcomes, and evaluation of

activities. To give the sponsors, contributors, practitioners, clients, critics, and the rest of us the facts and generalizations we want will require a large-scale and continuing program of research. This will cost a lot of money, but it may avert the spending of other money or make possible the spending of money in ways which will more certainly achieve the results desired.

Interest and support for research in social work are growing slowly and against some resistance. Perhaps this is due in part to the emotional involvement which most of us experience, in part to the relatively undeveloped methods of social research, in part to a misunderstanding as to the kinds of answers that may be expected. Some people seem to feel that research is a waste of time and money, unless it can give unequivocal answers to such questions as the following: Is the Salvation Army a good agency? Is depth interviewing necessary? Should underprivileged children be sent to summer camps? Is the juvenile court a success? etc. What many people do not understand is that the researcher's generalizations are likely to be made in a different and actually more useful form. He can be expected to say: The purpose of such and such a procedure is. . . . The detailed methods employed are. . . . The changes which take place, under specified circumstances, are. . . . These changes may be attributed to social work in the sense that the correlation between given social work activities and given other events is. . . . If you want to achieve such and such a result, a given procedure is most likely to accomplish it. A given agency is good or bad in the sense that it does or does not show a significant relationship between its activities, changes that occur in its cli-

ents, and its declared purposes. In other words, the statements of the researcher are not hortatory; they are indicative and conditional.

What I have just said may be restated in another way. Most of us approach problems of evaluation without making our goals or objectives explicit. We have the impression that certain procedures help us toward our goals, and we judge specific agencies or programs by the degree of their conformity to the approved procedures. Now if these have been objectively tested and shown to have a high degree of association with desired results, this short cut is a useful administrative tool. But if there has been no testing of methods in relation to outcome, or if conditions have changed since the testing, then it is not enough to measure the procedures in question by those considered standard. We need to return to a comparative study of what happens when given devices are

employed and what happens when they are omitted or replaced. Even then a judgment of worth depends on making explicit the values which are assumed. If people are debating whether a welfare program is good or bad, they can expect no help from the researcher unless they specify "good for what."

In other words, the researcher does not produce values or discard them directly. But he may be helpful in indicating the possible means and costs of attaining given objectives. He may be able to determine whether two or more goals are compatible or whether pursuit of one will obstruct the other. Thus indirectly he may influence people to change their values, but his function is not to dictate ultimate standards of good and bad. His is a more modest responsibility, but it is difficult and it is important.

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RESEARCH IN PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK

I. SOME SITUATIONAL FACTORS INFLUENCING RESEARCH¹

JEAN M. ARSENIAN

IN RECENT years psychiatric social workers have witnessed a rise of interest in research within their own field. Groups nationally representative of the profession of social work have conducted workshops on research areas and principles.² Psychiatric social workers have joined with psychiatrists in the Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry to formulate the areas both of service and of research in psychiatric social work.³ Training for research is being given focal emphasis in the three-year program of graduate studies which a few schools of social work now offer. Pronouncements by individual members of the profession with regard to the possibility of doing research on problems relevant to case work appear with increasing frequency in the *Journal of Social Casework* and elsewhere. All these efforts indicate interest in research, but interest that, as yet, has produced primarily preparatory activities which are an uncertain index of the amount and kind of research that will follow. In order to gauge the extent to which interest

and preparation may be expected to lead to action, it might be worth while to consider some conditions which produce effective and continuing research programs.

Kurt Lewin, who contributed greatly to the understanding of group phenomena, represents movement or change in group activity as a resultant of a shift in the constellation of forces that previously held the group in a quasi-stationary state.⁴ Periods of no change require explanation quite as much as do periods of rapid movement, and Lewin suggests that the quasi-stationary states result where forces potentially productive of movement are countered and balanced by restraining forces. Movement from the stationary state may occur either through a strengthening of forces productive of movement or by a weakening of the restraining forces. For example, the production rate of factory workers may be increased by adding new monetary incentives or by altering through group discussion and group decision the pressures which workers exert upon one another to keep a production rate stationary. Application of Lewin's concepts to the current access of interest in research in psychiatric social work raises the following questions: What forces or conditions functioned to restrain an earlier effective setting-up of research activities in this field? Does the present interest in research result from a re-

¹ This paper reports part of a study made by the author as research consultant to the Simmons College School of Social Work on a grant made to its Department of Psychiatric Social Work through the Training Division on Psychiatric Social Work of the National Institute of Mental Health.

² *Research in Social Work: A Report of the Workshop on Research in Social Work* (sponsored by the School of Applied Social Sciences, Western Reserve University), January, 1948.

³ Group for the Advancement of Psychiatry, *The Psychiatric Social Workers in the Psychiatric Hospital* (Report No. 2), January, 1948.

⁴ "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," *Human Relations*, I (1947), 5-41.

moval of restraints or from the addition of some new incentive to research? In the latter event, is it likely that research interest will crystallize into research activity or will the restraints still function as barriers to effective action?

Research activities probably are always the product of a constellation of factors, some of which are situational and are given in the circumstances which confront groups or individuals and some of which are intra-personal and are present in the motivations and abilities of persons. The situational factors productive of research, which alone are under consideration, may vary greatly. So, conditions which led to research developments in nuclear physics are not of the same order or kind as those investigative activities provoked by a leak in the roof. While no one condition may be essential to research, the absence of several or more conditions may effectively block it. In the historical development and present practice of psychiatric social work a number of factors productive of research appear to be absent.

Orientation to research in the established scientific disciplines is supplied by the conceptual framework of the science. The scientist attempts to understand relationships between events by arriving inductively at certain general ideas or basic concepts in terms of which he can predict new instances of events. The need to check predictions empirically initiates research, which then finds its momentum in revealed errors of prediction that call for revisions of concepts and new deductive tests. The research process achieves generalizations characterized by ever higher degrees of predictive certainty. Without a body of concepts, the explanation of each inadequately understood event must be-

gin in a trial-and-error fashion with leads or hunches supplied by common sense. Such inquiry is a sort of patchwork empiricism that provides little impetus to further research.

Witmer suggests that research in social work has been held back because it relies upon other disciplines for its scientific base, i.e., for its concepts.⁵ In this respect, social work does not differ from other applied fields—notably, industrial psychology or clinical psychology—in which basic concepts are borrowed but research has flourished. Unlike those disciplines, however, social work is an applied field of mixed origins and dependencies. It has borrowed concepts from sociology, economics, political science, and psychiatry. Moreover, as Klein points out, the history of social work has been characterized by shifting fads in the emphasis given to diverse concepts.⁶ The borrowed ideas have not been unified and integrated with reference to the area of social work practice, itself an ill-defined area; and multiple and shifting conceptual preferences produce eras of adoption, assertion, faction, and dogmatism rather than continuous lines of inquiry.

The lack of an integrated conceptual framework upon which social work as a whole bases its practices may seem to be of little import to the psychiatric social worker who, rather generally, sees her work as clearly allied with the concepts of modern psychiatry. But training in these concepts is greatly abbreviated by a program that involves exposure to areas of sociology, law, and economics

⁵ H. L. Witmer, "Some Principles of Research in Social Casework," *Smith College Studies in Social Work*, XIII (1942), 1-12.

⁶ P. Klein, "Contributions of Research to the Progress of Social Work" (paper read before the Committee on Research at the National Conference of Social Work, April 20, 1948).

as well as to medicine and psychiatry and which places a large emphasis upon field training in diverse agencies. Introductory courses, forced to simplify and summarize fields of knowledge, set up sharp dichotomies that ignore the known complexities of phenomena and present generalizations that the beginning student views absolutistically. It is the more intensive study of a subject matter that confronts the student with the probable error in these generalizations, exposes inadequacies in the conceptual framework, and thereby stimulates the relevant inquiry in which all research begins.⁷ If the education of psychiatric social workers often has provided them with the concepts of psychiatry without giving them an investigative attitude in the application of them, those who train psychiatric social workers may take consolation from Menninger's assertion that training programs in psychiatry have also been defective in producing research orientations.⁸ Menninger pleads for more effective methods of teaching research, a plea which many educators in psychiatric social work would echo. Professional training programs structure an optimal situation for producing motivation to research where they convey the problematic in basic concepts, provide skills for attacking the problems, and honor the relationship between research and the advancement of the profession's services. How or how much

of this can be presented to psychiatric social workers at the Master's level, where the aim cannot be that of training research specialists, is a very real problem for those who plan curriculums.

Psychiatric social work is to a greater or lesser degree dependent upon psychiatry in areas of practice as well as in conceptual orientation. Workers who function in mental hospitals and clinics find themselves in a dependent relationship to the psychiatric staff, which may define their area of service as broad or narrow, may exert a more or less close supervision over their practice, and may encourage or discourage their participation in collaborative research. On the whole, it appears that psychiatric social work has benefited greatly from its relationship with psychiatry, that psychiatry has functioned as a benign father-figure, encouraging rather than discouraging the growth of psychiatric social work in this dependent relationship. But research requires initiative and often the freedom to manipulate situations investigatively, and persons in subordinate positions may not feel free to propose or carry out research, particularly if it is not viewed by superordinates as one of their functions. So from the dependent relationship comes, perhaps, one strong deterrent to research.

Yet another factor in the relationship to psychiatry may have forestalled, if not blocked, research activities on the part of the psychiatric social worker. The factor in question is the existence of overlapping functions in the two professions. That each has special functions and own responsibilities is more or less clear. Where the psychiatric social worker's functions may overlap those of the psychiatrist is in the conduct of intensive case work with emotionally

⁷ The graduating social worker's training is, to be sure, continued in the process of supervision which extends over her early years of case work. But supervision, as the writer understands it, is oriented toward evaluating concrete practices and individual problems of the worker in handling client relationships rather than toward systematic appraisal of concepts and generalizations in the light of clinical experience.

⁸ W. C. Menninger, "Research in Mental Health in the National Perspective," *Mental Hygiene*, XIII (1949), 78-95; see pp. 85-90.

disturbed, psychoneurotic, and pre-psychotic clients. How does such case work differ—if at all—from nonanalytic interview therapies conducted by psychiatrists? While able minds in both professions have attempted to differentiate their procedures, the verbal distinctions do not yield a clear picture of concrete differences in practice⁹ and no large-scale empirical studies of the details of practice have been made.¹⁰ Some psychiatrists and some psychiatric social workers feel that attempts to differentiate intensive case work and psychotherapy are futile and unimportant: let those do therapy in each profession who are qualified by training and experience.

It is not necessary to adopt one or the other view in order to see that the existence of overlapping functions, together with differences in power and prestige, has an adverse effect upon research on case work, its concepts and methods. The individual psychiatric social worker may feel secure in his competence to do intensive case work, but can he afford to do and publish research in this area when both psychiatrists and some of his colleagues in psychiatric social work may raise the question: Is he doing what he should be doing? Are the problems of transference and countertransference that arise in case work, for example, his to investigate? The question of prerogatives does not arise for the medical social worker, who also has a dependent relationship to the medical profession but whose basic skills are un-

like those of the physician and whose area of professional functioning is complementary to his.¹¹ Psychiatric social workers a decade ago were presented with a very careful study of the field and function of their profession in the French report, a product of eight years' work conducted by a professional committee of psychiatric social workers.¹² In a chapter titled "Some Trends in Social Treatment" this study noted changes in emphasis and pointed out a trend that has brought case work into the orbit of therapy. Precisely in this area of therapy ambiguities about functions as well as interprofessional jealousies about prerogatives and questions about competence are keenest. Lack of clearness and confidence in this mixed arena might tend to discourage research or publication on the part of psychiatric social workers. On the other hand, Charlotte Towle discerns the possibility that this very ambiguity might well motivate research because it poses a problem of differentiating functions and methods. However, she notes that people are not motivated to solve problems which they do not want solved: "The psychiatric social workers' identification with psychiatry has resulted in some loss of their professional identity in their working relationship with psychiatry. Being undifferentiated from psychiatry is gratifying, in that it gives a certain security and status to the members of a subordinate group in the medical

⁹ Such collaborative reports as are available where the psychiatrist worked with the patient and the social worker with the critical relative suggest similarity rather than difference in work and tactics.

¹⁰ This situation currently is being corrected: the writer understands that a large-scale study of psychiatric social practices throughout the profession is in progress, sponsored by the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers under a research grant from the National Institute of Mental Health.

¹¹ Even where the prerogatives of related professions are not in question, a systematic analysis of professional activities and aims may enable members of the profession to see more clearly the relevant problems for research. Witmer has recently made this point with reference to social work as a whole. See H. L. Witmer, "Basic Conceptions in Social Work Research," *Mental Hygiene*, XXXIII (1949), 108-14.

¹² T. M. French, *Psychiatric Social Work* (New York, 1940).

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hierarchy. That this factor of identification as a defense may operate against research is worth noting."¹³

A fourth factor which seems to have functioned as a restraint upon research in psychiatric social work is the low visibility of negative outcomes or failures. In other applied fields which, like social work, are not conceptually oriented toward a program of basic research, evident failures (the leak-in-the-roof factor) provide a powerful stimulus to inquiry. For example, in fields of applied psychology, such as public opinion polling and advertising, failures are conspicuous and pressure to investigate and remedy is immediately exerted by the sponsoring groups which pay for the services. In medicine, conspicuous failure is evident in persistently high mortality rates, and pressure to investigate comes—with or without the money and power of big research foundations—from that commitment to service and sense of responsibility which characterize the profession. But for psychiatric social workers who aim at effecting more, or other than, material benefits for their clients, successes and failures are difficult to discriminate. Just as the presenting symptoms of clients often are not dramatic or bizarre, so the changes in feeling, in attitude, and in the conduct of interpersonal relationships may be undramatic, may continue long after the closing of the case, and may be relatable to many factors in addition to case work. These facts make research difficult. Then, too, dissatisfied clients do not form pressure groups. They drift away from the agency, impotent and silent, or they turn up at a new clinic where their prior failure may be viewed with suspicion or even labeled, cate-

gorically, as "unwillingness to accept help."

Given the low visibility of failures and such related factors as the powerless position of the client (who is the recipient of services given almost gratuitously) and the anonymity which the institutional setting provides the individual worker, it is indeed to their credit that psychiatric social workers are, as a professional group, so little complacent and sanguine about their work. Most appear, on the contrary, to be quite self-critical and to devote a good deal of energy to appraising and correcting their errors of procedure. But they do this as individuals, intermittently and subjectively. They have escaped the pressure exerted upon professional groups by conspicuous failures to objectify impressions in programs of research on outcomes and the factors which determine them.¹⁴

To recapitulate, some conditions which appear to have been unfavorable to the development of research in psychiatric social work are the failure of the field to develop and the training process to convey an integrated conceptual framework for the practice of psychiatric social work; the limitation imposed upon initiative to investigate by the psychiatric social worker's dependent relationship to a psychiatric staff which may or may not encourage independent research; the gradual focusing of professional activities upon intensive case work without clear definition of the psychiatric social

¹⁴ The situation is currently being corrected with the allocation of funds from foundations and other sources to evaluative research on case work. One of the most significant of these programs, because it aims at providing an instrument for evaluation that will be both reliable and generally useful, is the project directed by J. McV. Hunt at the Institute of Welfare Research of the Community Service Society of New York. It will be interesting to note the amount of adoption within the profession of Hunt's carefully devised measuring instrument.

¹³ Personal communication to the author.

worker's role and function in this area, with the result that research interests are blighted by the psychiatrist's prior claim and better preparedness to do the research; and, finally, a low visibility of failures which, known, provide a practical impetus to inquiry.

Is current interest in research in psychiatric social work due to a weakening of traditional restraints upon research or to the addition of new incentives to research undertakings? There is evidence that some of the conditions which have adversely influenced research productivity in the past are altering. The attempt to measure movement in case work is an approach to the problem of making successes and failures visible. The on-going survey within the profession of psychiatric social work practices may, in so far as it explores the extent to which social needs have moved psychiatric social workers into the area of treatment, eventuate in a clearer definition of their right to investigate in this area. But these are nascent trends. The sharp access of interest in research appears to the writer to be due primarily to a new incentive to research which the team approach has offered.

The psychiatric team, composed minimally of psychiatrists, psychiatric social workers, and clinical psychologists, originated some time ago in child-guidance

clinics but gained great impetus from the government's organization of professional personnel for the treatment of psychiatric casualties during the last war. The team, in varying degrees nominal or real, continues as a model for staff collaboration in veterans' hospitals and clinics throughout the country and as an idea in the minds of many members of each profession. For the subordinate professions of psychiatric social work and clinical psychology, definition of their roles as co-members in a team with psychiatrists seems to imply expanded functions and enhanced importance. Able and ambitious members of the two professions wish to retain the promise of status held out in the team concept, and research skills appear to be one means to this end. The psychiatric team is expected to function not only as a unit for the treatment and rehabilitation of mentally ill patients but also as a teaching and research unit. Leaders in the field of psychiatric social work are aware that the other members of the team have more experience and training in research and are eager to foster research interests and programs within their own profession. Further attention to the factors which induce and retard or restrain research may well alter the present rate of productive research by psychiatric social workers.

II. PRACTICE AND OPINIONS IN A SMALL SAMPLE OF AGENCIES¹⁵

Psychiatric social workers interested in fostering research within their professional group face the task of demarcating an appropriate research area. It is

¹⁵ This paper summarizes part of a study made by the author as research consultant to the Simmons College School of Social Work on a grant made to its Department of Psychiatric Social Work through the Training Division on Psychiatric Social Work of the National Institute of Mental Health.

not possible to derive their research area categorically from an established area of function. In practice, psychiatric social workers are executing a variety of functions even within their traditional work settings, i.e., mental hospitals and outpatient clinics. Some find their work limited to gathering social data on mental patients and rendering them such

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established social services as contacts with relatives, placements, etc. Others are working almost exclusively in the treatment area in clinics where there is little or no screening of cases for psychiatric social workers as opposed to psychiatrists. Particularly where the psychiatric social worker's area of work overlaps that of the psychiatrist and prerogatives lack clear definition within the two related professions, an *a priori* derivation of a research area becomes hazardous. For an exploratory approach to the problem an investigation of research practices and opinions about research areas suggests itself. This paper reports how psychiatric social workers in seven agencies were participating in research, their opinions about independent research areas for psychiatric social work, and the views of psychiatrists with whom they work regarding their appropriate areas of research.

Many settings for psychiatric social work are neglected in the sample, which is intended to represent only some of the varied types of psychiatric hospitals and out-patient clinics in which psychiatric social work is conducted.¹⁶ The seven agencies include two state psychiatric hospitals, one of which is a small hospital that receives primarily acute cases, the other, a large hospital with a high percentage of chronic and senile cases; an out-patient clinic connected with one of the state psychiatric

hospitals; a psychiatric clinic connected with a general hospital; a psychiatric clinic for veterans; and two child-guidance clinics. At least three of the institutions are nationally famous as treatment, research, and training centers, and all are currently placing a definite emphasis upon research. Generalizations drawn from such a sample may well err in the direction of presenting an overly optimistic picture of psychiatric social workers' opportunities for research.

Sixteen psychiatric social workers and eight psychiatrists in the seven agencies contributed interview data. Interviews with psychiatric social workers were scheduled to determine what research was in progress within the agency and what the worker saw as the major area, or areas, for independent research in psychiatric social work, her opinion regarding obstacles to research, and her personal interest, if any, in doing research. Interviews with psychiatrists were designed to elicit opinions on the ways in which psychiatric social workers can contribute to collaborative research, their areas for independent research, and their competences in research.

PARTICIPATION OF PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORKERS IN RESEARCH

In six of the seven agencies psychiatric social workers were participating in research at the time when the interviews were conducted.¹⁷ The research was in every instance collaborative, and psychiatrists were responsible for major planning and direction of the projects. In only two agencies was participation limited to psychiatric social workers hired specifically as research personnel. A precedent is apparently being established in a majority of the agencies for

¹⁶ To avoid confusing the term "sample" with "random sample," it would be clearer to speak of a "selection" of agencies. Choice was limited to the Boston area and, further, to some agencies, arbitrarily chosen, where psychiatric social workers work alongside psychiatrists with active research interests. An effort was made to vary the type of agency.

The persons interviewed in each agency included, minimally, psychiatric social workers in paid research positions and/or the head of the department. This study could not have been made without their generous co-operation.

¹⁷ Interviewing was done in the winter of 1950.

some participation in psychiatric research by regular members of the social work staff.¹⁸

It appears in the present sample that psychiatric social workers have two major functions in collaborative research with psychiatrists. One is specialized case work with a group of patients and/or their relatives who have been selected for psychiatric study. The worker keeps more intensive records on such cases and attends staff discussions where she may contribute ideas on dynamics, problems of technique, etc. The other major function is collecting social data on cases that are under psychiatric investigation, i.e., interviewing patients or relatives to obtain social histories and evaluations of present social adjustment. While planning the relationship of this material to the total study is still the psychiatrist's function, the psychiatric social worker may be required to design interview schedules, formulate rating scales, codify and analyze data, and even assume a major responsibility in writing. A barely acknowledged third function in collaborative research is "leg work," i.e., arranging appointments with patients, seeing that they get to appointments, and referring them, when necessary, to other personnel or agencies for social services.

Specialized case work in connection with a program of psychiatric research

¹⁸ In a stimulating critique of research in psychiatric social work, Berkman has noted that social workers have played a collaborative or instrumental role in psychiatric research more frequently than they have engaged in independent research. This study supports the point. While Berkman rightly implies that this is not the optimal situation, perhaps one can look with more favor on interdisciplinary research if it can also promote the levels of skill needed for research in problems integral with psychiatric social work. See T. D. Berkman, "Research in Psychiatric Social Work," *Journal of Psychiatric Social Work*, XXI (1951), 8-15.

appears to be a type of participation that calls for a high degree of the skills involved in all case work, while collecting social data requires skills more specifically associated with research and entails more extended responsibilities to the total research project. It is not surprising, therefore, that only psychiatric social workers who had been hired as research personnel were assuming responsibility for collecting and analyzing social data in the agencies sampled. In three of the four agencies where regular personnel were collaborating in research on a voluntary basis, their participation was in the area of specialized case work.¹⁹ Unlike psychiatric social workers hired as research personnel, these voluntary collaborators had no expectation of receiving recognition for their work in psychiatric publications, nor did they express interest in reporting their contributions in their own professional journals. Psychiatric social workers who take research jobs represent, it seems, a special group in several respects: they are willing to give up case work in some measure in order to acquire and use other skills, and they are not without interest in publication.

OPINIONS OF PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORKERS ON RESEARCH

The major area for independent research.—While there are several well-

¹⁹ The fourth agency, a psychiatric clinic for veterans, provides an exception to generalizations regarding a dichotomy of functions for psychiatric social workers in collaborative research and to statements regarding publication. In contrast to the long-time and intensive programs of psychiatric research found in the other agencies, the staff of this clinic was currently engaged in descriptive surveys of the organization of its services in treatment, supervision, etc. Psychiatric social workers were collaborating with psychiatrists in all phases of the studies, from planning to publication, and were acquiring in the process an enthusiasm for research that was not found elsewhere among voluntary collaborators.

defined areas in which psychiatric social workers were collaborating in research with psychiatrists, no worker in the agencies studied was engaged in independent research. Interviews yielded, however, a consensus that there is a major area for independent research by the profession, namely, case work, its methods and results. Twelve of the sixteen workers who were interviewed cited this area immediately and, more often than not, limited their discussions exclusively to it.

Differences in clarity and sophistication of ideas with regard to research on case work emerged. Several workers stated simply that the profession needs to make evaluative studies of the outcomes of case work. This conception of case-work research implies a practical and self-critical interest in accomplishments but takes no account of the many factors that would have to be assayed along with successes and failures in order to give meaning to the latter. Recognition was given to some of these factors by respondents who stated that case-work research should investigate outcomes in relation to techniques employed and diagnostic categories of clients studied. They raised such questions as: With what cases do we get good results and why? What special techniques are required for successful work with particular diagnostic groups? Finally, a few workers stated that the general area of case work is at present ambiguously structured and that research should begin with an attempt on the part of the profession to define the goals and techniques of case work. They expressed interest in knowing whether psychiatric social workers are in agreement in their practices as well as in statements of general principles; they wondered about general practices for certain

types of cases; and they asked whether psychiatric social workers in practice differentiate case work from psychotherapy. They requested, in short, a definition by the profession of its role and function in case work and suggested that the attempt to arrive at a definition might begin in just such a survey of case-work practices throughout the field as that which the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers is currently sponsoring.²⁰ While this is not a comprehensive conception of research on case work, it indicates a strategic beginning point if one accepts the proposal made by the writer in an earlier paper to the effect that overlapping and undemarcated functions which the psychiatric social worker shares with the psychiatrist have impaired the progress of research in the field.²¹

The minority of respondents who did not select case work as the major area for independent research mentioned a variety of problems arising out of their own administrative and supervisory experiences. They suggested investigations of in-take procedures, waiting-list policies, and techniques of student supervision. Only one person stressed a need for studies of the social conditions, including the familial environments, from which patients come and to which they return after hospitalization or treatment. The finding that research on social conditions was cited as a major area for research only once, notwithstanding the fact that psychiatric social workers still devote a good deal of energy to manipulating environmental conditions in ways that they hope will be beneficial to their clients, indicates, perhaps, the extent to which interest is currently centered

²⁰ See above, n. 10.

²¹ See above, Part I, pp. 17-18.

upon intensive treatment relationships.

Obstacles to research.—If psychiatric social workers agree that research on case work is important, to what do they attribute low research productivity? In the small group of workers interviewed, the most frequently mentioned obstacles to research were the nature of the phenomena to be studied, the nature of the psychiatric social worker, and the pressure of time.

One-third of the respondents expressed the opinion that case work is a subject matter peculiarly resistant to scientific inquiry. They characterized the important variables as intangible or expressed doubt about the possibility of arriving at a language of the case-work process. The implication that the phenomena of case work are unique in every instance and nongeneralizable suggests a personal unreadiness to conceptualize data and/or an absence of established conceptual frames of reference within the profession. The statements of several workers cited earlier to the effect that research on case work should begin with a profession-wide attempt to define the area, goals, and methods of case work similarly indicate insecurity regarding basic concepts. Presumably case work, like other forms of human behavior, admits of conceptual penetration, and presumably, also, individual social workers conceptualize the problems that confront them in the practice of case work. Hesitancy and insecurity in framing problems for research in the field of case work may stem not from a lack of conceptual orientation but from the status of the concepts used. It may be that psychiatric social workers are borrowing their conceptual preferences from dynamic psychiatry without systematically integrating them with the special goals of case work. Whether such inte-

gration is possible remains to be established. Meanwhile, if this interpretation is correct, a formulation of case-work problems exclusively in psychiatric concepts raises questions of prerogative and competence to investigate.

In the opinion of an equally large number of respondents, the selection of persons who go into psychiatric social work is unfavorable to research. Psychiatric social workers are, they reported, individuals who are motivationally oriented to help people rather than to do research. They get satisfaction from and are deeply dependent upon the nurturant relationships which they establish with clients. Psychiatrists whose opinions are to be reported in a following section made similar observations regarding the practical orientation of psychiatric social workers, their interest in giving, and, incidentally, their inability to frustrate clients. Certainly practical and investigative interests are not objectively antithetical. All applied sciences attest their congruence. But within persons there appears to be an economy of human interests such that strong interests of one type may wholly displace others. A number of facts in addition to the self-evaluations reported here suggest that case work becomes the absorbing interest of social workers engaged in its practice.

Lack of time was also mentioned frequently as an obstacle to research—an opinion that can readily be documented. Those who say that demands upon the time of psychiatric social workers are no greater than those confronting other members of the clinical staff ignore the fact that some social work is a response to importunate requests that cannot be deferred. Perhaps more important is the fact that there seems to be slight precedent within agencies for allocating

time from case work to research except where the latter is sponsored and directed by the psychiatric staff.

Other reasons given for low research productivity, none mentioned more than twice, were lack of skills, inadequacy of records, insecurity of a worker in a relatively new field, and unpleasantness of the initial experience in research, i.e., the graduate thesis. Some of these factors may be of greater objective importance to the progress of research than the infrequency of mention suggests. Psychiatrists saw lack of skills as an important barrier to independent research. It is noteworthy that only two psychiatric social workers recognized or admitted lack of training as a reality factor blocking interest in and participation in research.

Own interest in research.—In interviewing psychiatric social workers on major areas for research and barriers to research, general evaluations of the state of affairs in their profession were sought. A more personal question was asked toward the end of each interview, namely, to what extent the informant herself would be interested in doing or participating in research. Slightly less than two-thirds of the group stated that they were interested in participating in research, a majority that included all who at that time were actually collaborating in psychiatric research, whether as research personnel or on a voluntary basis. Only two persons who were not doing research expressed interest in undertaking it. This may mean that those who have research interests find ways of expressing them or that participation in research evokes interest in the activity, or both.

Almost all the nonresearch personnel who expressed interest indicated that their interest was limited to a certain

type of participation or a particular area of research. Several stated that they were interested only in collaborative research in which their own role would be carrying certain types of cases in treatment and keeping more detailed records on them. Several others limited their interest to a study of problems confronting them in their administrative functions within the agency. None expressed a personal enthusiasm for ambitious undertakings in what had been viewed as the major area for independent research, namely, investigation of case-work techniques and outcomes.

This is perhaps the place to report a finding which may be related to the rather qualified and limited personal interests of workers in research. Because research and publication are clearly defined paths to honorific positions in the hierarchy of many professions, an attempt was made to discover whether psychiatric social workers see a similar relationship existing in their own profession. At the end of each interview, the following question was posed: How do psychiatric social workers acquire prestige within their own agencies, within communities, and nationally? While several informants denied that members of their profession were interested in prestige or that they, personally, knew about the sort of invidious judgments that others might be making, the majority stated that skill in case work brings recognition in the form of supervisory and administrative positions within agencies. Success in those positions may lead to committee work and teaching, which represent distinction within the community. Holders of distinguished positions within communities in turn may be invited to work on national committees and so extend their field of recognition. Publication was seen as an

alternative rather than as an exclusive means to national recognition and as quite unimportant for access to positions of prestige below the national level.

By implication, it appears that publication means aiming directly for wide recognition and so betraying a high degree of personal ambition. To desire tokens of the respect and confidence of one's immediate associates is a different matter, and reputation as an effective and dynamically oriented case worker is the recognized means to this end. Apparently interest in research as a path to prestige is lessened by the existence of another path to prestige, namely, skill in case work, which is more readily accessible because of better training and more knowledge in this area and which is less obviously ambitious and more congruent with the psychiatric social worker's nurturant interests.

OPINIONS OF PSYCHIATRISTS ON RESEARCH BY PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORKERS

The eight psychiatrists who were included in the sample were directing or were closely associated with staff research projects in which psychiatric social workers participated. Depending upon the nature of their own research, they defined the psychiatric social worker's collaborative role as carrying special cases in treatment or as collecting social data on cases under investigation. Their views on an appropriate area for independent research by psychiatric social workers varied more strikingly and appear to be related to different conceptions of the role and function of the psychiatric social worker in the clinical team.

Two psychiatrists were prepared to identify case work with psychotherapy and to concede the competence of the

psychiatric social worker to function equally with the psychiatrist in this area, at least within the setting of the clinic. It may be noteworthy that both respondents were associated with child-guidance clinics. They stated that psychiatric social workers who have adequate experience and training are qualified and competent to handle treatment relationships as does the psychiatrist. But, while they defined case work, or psychotherapy, as the psychiatric social worker's major function, they did not select it as an appropriate area for independent research. One stated that psychiatric social workers are not prepared to do independent research: they are not trained in the scientific method, they lack a knowledge of statistics, and, as persons, they have curiosity but not an investigative attitude toward the problems that arise in their work. The second psychiatrist suggested as areas for independent research the investigation of agency services and the social forces in psychiatry. In short, the psychiatrists who granted psychiatric social workers parity in the practice of therapy did not concede their competence to do research in this area. It appears that, where members of the superordinate profession are relinquishing some areas of prerogative or privilege, they are holding in reserve others.

A second group of three psychiatrists stated that the major function of the psychiatric social worker is case work and that case work differs from psychotherapy, which is the psychiatrist's province. One spoke with no element of complaint, indicating that the psychiatric social worker handles problems of clients on a reality level and that her training, which emphasizes practicality and service, is excellently organized for such work. The other two psychiatrists

stated that case work *should* be distinguished from therapy but actually is not in the minds and practices of many case workers. In their opinion, psychiatric social workers should not attempt to deal with problems of instinct and deeply unconscious motivations. For those whose goal is to work in this area, qualifications are not established by a personal analysis: complete training in psychiatry is necessary. One psychiatrist in the group suggested that case work be defined positively as dealing with problems of interpersonal relationships or problems of the ego and its objects.

Differentiating case work from therapy, these psychiatrists viewed the major area of independent research as related to case work. Independent research, in their opinion, should begin with an attempt to define the role and function of the psychiatric social worker in case work. Basic research within this demarcated area would then be her special province, i.e., investigation of the methods and concepts of case work. The psychiatrists who identified the area of case work with problems of interpersonal relationships suggested that the psychology of the ego and of interpersonal relationships is a relatively undeveloped field, that psychiatric social workers will have to work creatively toward developing their own concepts in this area and, in doing so, might well exploit the opportunities which some clinics offer to work with the client and his objects, or the interpersonal constellation, rather than with clients singly.

It is difficult to state with certainty the difference in point of view represented by the last group of three psychiatrists because their references to the psychiatric social worker's area of practice were more oblique and general.

This may be related to the fact that none of them is working in close clinical collaboration with psychiatric social workers in treatment of patients: two occupy administrative positions, and one is a director of research. The distinctiveness of their viewpoint lies perhaps in the fact that they see *all* the functions of the psychiatric social worker as quite separate from those of the psychiatrist. They did not use the term "case work" and, appositely, did not suggest that helping clients to work through emotional problems whether at conscious or unconscious levels is the worker's task. By implication, the major function of the psychiatric social worker was viewed as gathering information about the patient's social environment and providing him with social services. One psychiatrist stated that the training and competences of the psychiatric social worker should orient her toward social problems and social forces rather than toward dynamic psychiatry. Another suggested that the basic science for the social worker is sociology. Opinions regarding research areas were congruent with their conception of the psychiatric social worker's function as manipulating conditions in the social environments of clients. The area for independent research was defined as investigation of the social conditions and forces which influence clients and assessment of the efficacy of attempts to manipulate these conditions in order to alleviate stress.

It may be of interest to psychiatric social workers to note that psychiatrists who maximized the separation of their profession from psychiatry and linked it, rather, with the social sciences are not psychoanalysts. Psychiatrists in both the first group, which minimized any separation of psychiatric social work from psychiatry in the treatment area,

and the second group, which recognized case-work practices as distinguishable from but related to psychiatry, are either practicing analysts or are psychoanalytically oriented. Case workers who feel that they are intellectually most indebted to psychoanalysts and who work consultatively with them in the practice of case work may be interested in the division of opinion within this group of psychiatrists as to their role and function in case work, if they are not already aware of it.

Evaluations of psychiatric social workers' competences in research.—Questioned regarding the assets and limitations of psychiatric social workers in research, all psychiatrists in the present sample expressed the opinion that members of the profession are adequately trained to contribute collaboratively to research. They recognized, however, that independent research places heavier demands upon motivation and training of personnel.

Four psychiatrists who are themselves interested and experienced in scientifically designed research programs stressed the psychiatric social worker's need for more training in the scientific method: social workers lack know-how in formulating problems, in planning pertinent modes of inquiry, and in analyzing and evaluating findings. The need for more training in statistics, an almost indispensable tool in both the planning and evaluative phases of research, was emphasized. Whether such training can be given within the two-year program of graduate work was considered by only one informant, who decided that it could *not* be achieved in so brief a time.

The remaining group of psychiatrists, themselves less interested in formally designed research, commented most frequently upon motivational factors un-

favorable to research. They expressed the opinion that psychiatric social workers lack an investigative attitude, are interested in results but not in formulating and testing concepts to account for results, and are more concerned to fix and change rather than to learn. They did not suggest how these exclusively practical orientations might be altered. In fact, one psychiatrist stated that no attempt to change them should be made, since practicality is the psychiatric social worker's most valuable special contribution to the clinical team.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A survey of research practices in one small and regionally limited sample of agencies reveals that psychiatric social workers have several well-defined areas for collaboration in psychiatric research.

They may participate by specialized case work with a group of patients or relatives of patients who are under study, or they may collect social data on cases which the psychiatric staff is investigating. The first type of collaboration requires collection of detailed records but little or no responsibility in planning, analyzing, and publishing the material. Correspondingly it affords little opportunity to develop skills associated with research. With the present sample such participation was carried out on a voluntary basis by regular members of the psychiatric social work staffs. Only those specially employed as research personnel were engaged in collecting and analyzing social data.

Psychiatric social workers in the agencies studied were not engaged in independent research. There was, however, general agreement that the major area for independent research by the profession is case work, its methods and results.

Psychiatrists working in close collaboration with social workers agreed that case work is the profession's major function, but themselves held differing views on what constitutes case work and on the adequacy of the psychiatric social worker's training for independent research in this area. Those psychiatrists who saw case work as more or less identical to psychotherapy reserved for themselves the right to investigate the field. Psychiatrists with more administrative roles viewed the psychiatric social worker's function in terms of special services needed by the hospital, such as gathering social data and rendering social services to patients. Correspondingly, they designated these functions and services as the area for independent research by psychiatric social workers.

Psychiatric social workers who defined case work as the major area for independent research were not themselves eager to investigate. A preference for practice as opposed to research is fortified by two reality factors specified as obstacles to research: lack of time and pressing social need for their services.

Interest in having case work investigated appeared to be stimulated by a desire for clarification of techniques and aims within the profession.

It appears that a degree of insecurity accompanies the practice of case work where it is viewed by some psychiatric social workers and some psychiatrists as an encroachment on the field of psychotherapy. Yet societal needs and training programs tuned to them seem to be moving psychiatric social workers into the area of treatment. Thus it becomes of first importance to clarify basic concepts and techniques and to integrate these with the aims and practice of case work. If these problems can be satisfactorily met (and they can be better advanced by research than by argument), those psychiatric social workers who have special interest or talent for research can proceed to do productive work on particular aspects of case work or utilize case work as a tool to investigate the many social and interpersonal problems urgently requiring study.

WELLESLEY COLLEGE

SOME ASPECTS OF PUBLIC WELFARE—TODAY AND TOMORROW¹

FRED K. HOEHLER

BECAUSE this is a public welfare conference and the American Public Welfare Association is a cosponsor, I think that it is proper for me to greet you on behalf of the Association and to say a word about the Association. As a greeting, I first must thank those who planned the conference and brought it up to the point of this opening session. From now on its success will depend on your invitees and those who have the courage and wit to carry on the discussion.

For the officers and members I can say in complete sincerity that these regional conferences are basic to the improvement of public welfare skills and to a better understanding of the purpose of each program. As president of the Association and speaking for most of the Board, I believe that the contributions in time and thought that go into these conferences are the finest investments of our staff and committees toward better care for people in trouble or for those in need of cash and services.

The Association has had a long history. It began first as the American Association of Public Welfare Officials. In 1930 that association of officials was strengthened by the help received from foundation funds and by the appointment of a full-time director and secretary.

In May, 1932, its name was changed to the American Public Welfare Asso-

ciation. This was an effort to conform to other functional organizations growing up in public service—the International City Managers' Association, the Civil Service Assembly, and others. The emphasis was on the service performed and not on a position title. With this change came also a new concept of program responsibility. The Association was less likely to become merely a group of individuals with comparable titles seeking their own advantage. From that time on, the emphasis was on assisting in legislative and program planning, not only as these affected the state or local administrators, but with an eye to the total needs of people and communities.

Assistance was given to members of legislatures as well as to committees and individuals in the United States Congress. Organizational structure and personnel standards were discussed with welfare administrators and staff members. The record shows innumerable visits to state capitols and is filled with drafts of suggested legislation prepared by staff members of APWA. In those days ample support came from national foundations and from fees for state and local services provided by the director and staff of the Association in the early thirties. Foundation grants made possible a large staff and ample travel funds for covering the United States and Canada. We were told that self-support was essential and that such grants would diminish. They did—to the vanishing point—and now this Association is entirely on self-support. With the excep-

¹ An address delivered at the West Coast Regional Conference of the American Public Welfare Association, Oakland, California, last fall.

tion of a few grants from foundations for special projects, you members support the Association.

With apologies to an overworked staff, and as an old-timer, I want to testify that the APWA is a healthier organization now than in the days of easy money. Membership, committee, and board participation is better. The remarkable thing is that Miss Dunn and her staff can accomplish so much on so little.

Within the two decades since 1930 changes in the field of public welfare were enormous in most cases. Some of these were so radical as to transform the whole field and method. Organization and administrative changes, particularly as they relate to social welfare as a state function, were most numerous. The underlying philosophy and legal concepts moved from the punitive measures through condescending charity to those newer ideals of democratic service—by people, with people, for people.

The economic depression of the thirties brought pressures for state organization. Relief services and funds were required to relieve suffering and to protect the public health. Federal measures in providing relief grants began in 1931 and increased through 1935. At that point, public assistance grants from the federal government encouraged the organization of permanent state welfare services. These state public welfare programs were aided by the development of standards of administration and service by the American Public Welfare Association.

Local governments built upon the welfare services which were organized shortly after the first World War and assumed many of the special relief functions. Later on, counties set up welfare agencies to assume specialized

functions for emergency relief. These were added to their already well-established services for children and the aged. In many instances after 1933 or 1934 these county services carried the entire local government responsibility for social welfare functions, institutional and noninstitutional.

This trend has continued, with the advantage of consolidating responsibility and the financial structure to support it. Elimination of township relief functions, where it occurs, removes this service from the most flagrant political manipulation and incidentally provides for better standards and control. In the trend toward elimination of township and city relief services, with centralized county responsibility, we also see an increasing measure of state financial aid and supervision.

As we view the picture of public welfare in the federal government, we find that before 1930 welfare services were scattered and subdivided through more than one hundred units. Administration and supervision were set up within a score of divisions and subdivisions.

It was not until the economic depression of the thirties that the federal government became specifically interested in relief or public assistance. President Hoover's Employment Committee, after much urging, finally secured authority from Congress to use \$300,000,000 of Reconstruction Finance Corporation money as loans to states. As loans these were completely fictitious. No state intended to return any of the money, and, in fact, no state has.

Eventually the need was so serious that a sound federal relief law was imperative. In the spring of 1933 President Roosevelt asked Congress for legislation which created the Federal Emergency Relief Administration. This administra-

tion served the states in various ways. There were grants to state organizations and direct federal administration in several of the states. Eventually, in 1935, came the Social Security Act, setting up public assistance to be administered under state authority.

While all this was going on in the welfare field, we lived through the second World War. Our physical scientists and inventors developed machinery of destruction and means of transportation and of communication which have made Jules Verne and other imaginative writers look like amateurs. Housewives and industrial workers benefited by the invention of gadgets and labor-saving devices and acquired greater leisure. Medical science produced new drugs and improved methods of treatment which have resulted in prolonging man's years of expectancy. Certainly the last few decades can properly be labeled the "half-century of scientific progress and economic development."

The most serious lag during that same period has been in human relations and human affairs generally. This area of our life is usually so charged with prejudice and affected by political expediency that selfish interest motives impede progress. If more people were unselfish about the principles involved and honest in the discussion of the issues and the men who represent them, we could make greater progress.

Our shaky international relations and the rumors of war and/or armistice today are all the evidence we need in this area. The demagogues who blindly denounce the "welfare state" without knowing what they mean and the little dictators who seek to limit man's thoughts and actions in human relations by restrictive legislation are the "gang-

sters" in the way of human progress. Social and economic prejudice and blind political partisanship have discounted the value of welfare services, or politicians have made political capital of them. Some of this political fight has been directed at weaknesses in administrative practice, and for certain services it has been an attack on what is called "too great federal control."

If the public welfare services of this country are to meet the existing need and do so with the courage and forthrightness necessary to reduce causes of dependency and delinquency, welfare administrators and legislators—federal, state, and local—must begin to plan together. Such planning must be directed at a realistic program and with a recognition that the people at home—in localities and states—want and need the maximum of responsibility consistent with broad national standards.

No political party or special interest group can completely discount the right of the people to look to their government in times of distress. Government in a democracy has a basic responsibility for the protection of its people against illness, economic distress, and national disaster. Action in this service of government must be qualified by the requirement that there be the maximum of self-help from those seeking aid and from their responsible relatives.

Regardless of what we may say for the political party in power seeking to meet its welfare responsibility, the party of "the outs" will find plenty to criticize and vote against. *That is a price we pay for democracy.* It may take another depression to get full acceptance of government's obligation to provide welfare and assistance to people. However, the growth as well as broad acceptance of

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such services since the thirties has been phenomenal and has given encouragement for speedy understanding of this need for government action.

The part of public welfare in civil defense plans has been fixed by policy from the Federal Civil Defense Administration and by practice in the strategic states and communities. The broad national policy is to place responsibility for all services, including emergency welfare, in the existing departments or divisions of government. In all the large states and strategic areas the planning and organization for welfare service is the responsibility of the state or local departments. Usually the welfare director or his representative is the chief of the emergency service division. This pattern is generally recognized as sound and has added a new responsibility to the respective welfare departments. This experience and the existence of several local and state disaster codes may well set a permanent pattern for government responsibility in natural disasters as well as in those resulting from enemy action.

While the care of and assistance to the aged have long been public welfare services, the various community problems related to an aging population must in part be met by public welfare. This is in spite of the fact that many of this group are not now in a public welfare program. Because of the tremendous cost of old age assistance and custodial services for the aged in public mental hospitals or nursing homes, the welfare departments must assume a role of leadership in establishing community and state programs for the aged. Adult education, medical care, psychology, social service, and re-employment are some of the services which will be a part

of such a program of prevention and rehabilitation. It should seek to prevent certain of the aged group from entering institutions where very little can be done for them and should help those with meager retirement incomes to stay off assistance rolls and particularly to have a feeling of belonging to society rather than being discarded by friends and neighbors.

One thing recent legislation and practice will demand is a degree of decentralization of welfare responsibility, not only from the federal to state governments, but also from states to localities. This is a demand coming from both state legislators and the public press. In decentralizing there must be maintained good standards both of personnel and of service. Federal participation in these programs will be continued, as will state aid and, it is to be hoped, full local participation. This tripartite arrangement is necessary to meet future catastrophes which may result from underemployment and economic recessions. Co-operation among the three levels of government is the best way to prevent a repetition of the depression of the thirties.

The outlook of public welfare points to the need for greater programs of prevention in the field of delinquency as well as in the field of dependency. Causes of these two social ailments must be uprooted. This can best be done by joint planning between voluntary and public agencies. In the "Statement of Public Welfare Principles," issued by the American Public Welfare Association in June of 1951, there is a paragraph on prevention which I should like to repeat here:

Public welfare recognizes that the dependency and social maladjustment with which it deals are measures of society's failure to meet

the needs of people in other ways. Therefore, the function and concern of public welfare includes active advocacy of many measures, not in themselves administered by public welfare agencies, which prevent need and assure maximum social or individual well-being. Public welfare, through its knowledge of the cost to individuals in suffering or impairment of their capacities and to society in economic and social loss, has a particular responsibility to keep the conditions which create need and their solution before the public.

Public welfare services must look forward to more financial support for research and for training personnel. Salaries at present will not permit individuals to improve their status through proper education. A formula for educational participation has been set in child welfare with federal aid and in other areas through educational leaves. Leadership in maintaining and improving personnel standards should come from public welfare. This must include improved salaries and working conditions.

In 1942 Miss Grace Abbott, former chief of the Children's Bureau, stated in one of her many books, "I believe the future work of a committee of the American Public Welfare Association should be in the field of personnel standards." Miss Abbott pointed out that this must be a co-operative arrangement under the leadership of the APWA because of the large number of persons employed in public service. She suggested co-operation with the American Association of Social Workers, the schools of social work administration, and the three levels of government. Grace Abbott's advice was sound. Not only do we need personnel standards, but the Association should continue its constant effort to improve methods of administration and to continue the frequent exchange of experience among states which helps to raise

the quality of service throughout the nation.

The usefulness and progress of public welfare in the years ahead can be no greater than the level of the intelligence, imagination, and devotion of the people who work for it. Administrators must be men and women who are able to recognize social need and who can interpret the causes and the remedies to the people of their jurisdictions. This most certainly will demand moral and intellectual courage. It will also require careful planning, which should involve not only staff participation but also advice and active assistance from other citizens and citizen groups. Experience has shown that the best kind of interpretation will come from informed citizen groups rather than from staff or professional workers, whose vested interest may weaken their influence on the public or before legislatures. Any professional group—such as the AASW or the APWA—should spend time and energy in educating individuals and organizations in the community who are concerned with human welfare. The best friends and interpreters can be found there.

Administrators must in the future give greater recognition to the part research can play in improved administration. This may involve simple statistical studies or the more complicated types of research into social disorders and their remedies. Legislators should be informed that ultimate costs of welfare services can be reduced through the invention of new methods and remedies, just as production costs in industry have been decreased by the invention of machinery.

Appropriations for research and for training in social welfare are essential if services are to be improved. Private funds dedicated to improving human

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relations must also be sought for research into methods of public welfare administration and toward reducing dependency, delinquency, and physical suffering as they relate to government responsibility.

Public welfare services and social work generally, as they seek future progress, must recognize the realities of politics in a democracy. Whether we like it or not, we are fortunate in that legislatures, newspapers, and individuals are still free to investigate and criticize the work we do. A greater danger than minor criticism is a situation in which welfare workers, as well as our critics, would not be free to speak out for or against an issue or a program. We must recognize that even the worst political partisan, whose selfish interests plague us, can be educated and brought to accept a better welfare philosophy and to support needed services if we exercise patience and statesmanship.

We may not ourselves live to see the day when the improvement is felt, but we can be sure that our statesmanship will contribute to better understanding and ultimately to improved human relations—which is the goal we must seek as the outlook for public welfare. It can then be expected that, whatever political party is in control, the basic elements of security and protection of the health and welfare of all people will continue as a government responsibility.

Social welfare in the days ahead is destined to play an important role in international relations. Government agencies have expanded our foreign service in the technical fields of labor, economics, and social service. This move is not the product of a charitable impulse. It is a realistic effort to assist other nations to meet the demands of their people for social justice and an improved

standard of living. It is a move in the battle of ideologies. The foreign service expansion involves funds, supplies, and technical skills.

The social unrest in Asia, the Middle East, and parts of Europe is no longer an alien uprising through which we can live in calm security. Our responsibility to help the countries affected by this unrest is more than part of the leadership we inherited in World War II. It is based on the complete interdependence of all people who believe in freedom and in the rule of the majority.

Democratic people learn to restrict the special privileges of a few so as to help meet the needs of those who are underprivileged. This is what we did in the economic depression, and it is what we have been doing in a modified form since then to protect free enterprise in America. We have learned from recent history that free enterprise cannot continue to live where the will and the rights of a majority are seriously limited. Majority rule and free enterprise as we know it are the handmaidens of democracy. The recent elections in France and the Bevan revolt in the Labour party of Great Britain are two political manifestations of the democratic demands for more social services for people.

We, together with other nations, are a long way from solutions for the problems of illness, poverty, destitution, and crime. In the United States these problems cost our people several billion dollars each year in tax funds and in voluntary support of social agencies. In suffering and heartaches their cost is beyond measure. In the world at large, including America, they threaten the existence of democratic government. The material costs are uncounted, but men and women suffer and die in battle and at home, victims of the scourge which

is the product of these Four Horsemen of the body politic.

Reasonable security in a free land and peace in the world will continue to be closely related to our capacity to relieve the social ills of people at home and abroad. The ultimate task of removing their causes will require the use of every resource, because they live where there

is unequal opportunity and the greed of selfish men and nations. While we strive for this, we must equip ourselves with a philosophy and the technical knowledge necessary to assist in relieving the immediate dangers to world peace and freedom. The social factor may turn out to be the decisive factor in world affairs.

ILLINOIS DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC WELFARE

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SOME RECENT PUBLIC WELFARE DEVELOPMENTS¹

ROBERT T. LANSDALE

IN THE time available I hardly need tell you that I cannot discuss all the major problems of finance in public welfare. I shall, therefore, limit my comments to outlining a few recent developments that I believe will be of interest to you. I had the pleasure last February of meeting with the members of your social security committee. They are well informed on public welfare, and your association is fortunate in having the guidance of such an able group.

By the nature of their jobs, public welfare officials have more bad news than good news to report, for they deal with problems of human distress—the problems of the needy aged, the sick, the disabled, the blind, dependent children, and the unemployed. The causes of human need being what they are—old age, sickness, accidents, death, unemployment, and so on—it is obvious that we shall always have some measure of economic and social dependency.²

Let me start by giving you some good news. Since March, 1950, we have experienced in New York State a substantial decrease in the public assistance population. In that month 559,000 persons were on the rolls. By August, 1951, the number had dropped to 445,750, a

decline of 113,250,³ or 20 per cent. The monthly costs of public assistance during this eighteen-month period dropped from \$21,200,000 in March, 1950, to \$19,400,000 in August, 1951, a decline of \$1,800,000, or 8.5 per cent—less than the recipient reduction rate because of inflation and other factors.

The contraction in the state's public assistance population is attributable largely to the drop in the home relief case load, which has occurred primarily because of the rise in employment associated with the defense program. Most of the employable or partially employable persons receiving public assistance are on the home relief rolls. Consequently, that program is the most responsive of the five public assistance programs—old age assistance, aid to dependent children, assistance to the blind, aid to the disabled, and home relief—to fluctuations in the labor market. In March, 1950, there were approximately 232,000 men, women, and children on home relief. Today there are less than half that number—114,000. However, in August, 1951, approximately 21,000 former home relief recipients were among those receiving Aid to the Disabled, a new program of public assistance set up by Congress. The net reduction in the home relief rolls in New York State for the March, 1950—August, 1951, period was, therefore, 97,000. The August, 1951, expenditure for home relief was \$4,000,000—or \$3,-

³ The decline continued through October, 1951 (latest data available), so that since March, 1950, 128,000 recipients have left the rolls, or an average of more than 7,500 persons per month.

¹ An address delivered at a conference last fall on the Organization and Functions of Government, Empire State Association of Commerce, Albany, New York.

² [Commissioner Lansdale suggested that those who are "interested in this tremendous problem of conserving human resources" would find it outlined in social welfare material which was to be distributed by the association.—Editor.]

400,000 less than in March, 1950. Partly offsetting this reduction are the monthly Aid to the Disabled expenditures for the 21,000 former home relief recipients—\$1,450,000 in August, 1951.

Although our public assistance rolls are contracting, our current costs in New York State are still heavy—\$19,000,000 monthly in federal, state, and local funds. Yet that money provides only a subsistence level of living for the approximately 446,000 persons on our rolls. To risk a statistical average, that means less than \$1.42 a day per person. These cash grants, plus whatever known budgeted resources the recipient may have, are to cover all maintenance needs—food, rent, clothing, utilities, household supplies, and incidentals. Not too long ago, at the value of the 1935-39 dollar, this same level of public assistance would have cost \$10,250,000, or about half what it does now. Thus we can see that inflation has become, in effect, the biggest chiseler on relief, just as it has become the biggest chiseler everywhere else in our national economy.

In this connection let me point out that a hidden factor in public assistance expenditures is the steadily rising cost of hospital care. In 1945 the daily rate paid to voluntary hospitals for these public charge cases ranged from \$4.50 to \$7.50 daily. Today the rate ranges from \$8.50 to \$15.75 per day. In many communities the rates paid have increased 125 per cent in five years. Thus, our public assistance costs today include nearly \$8,000,000 for the hospital care of approximately 40,000 public assistance recipients annually.

I should now like to discuss a new and significant factor in public assistance in New York State, probably one of the most important developments in recent years. Before I outline this situation, let

me give you some background.

Ever since Colonial times, the localities in New York State have borne a primary responsibility for assistance and care of needy persons and have provided for such persons in accordance with local customs, local conditions, local standards of living, and, of course, local resources. In modern times our state Social Welfare Law has provided for broad standards of assistance, and the State Department of Social Welfare has recommended detailed standards to the localities. The localities have adapted the recommended standards to fit their own local situations. Through this pattern of local-state co-operation, New York State has developed over the years what is acknowledged to be one of the best public assistance operations in the nation. One final fact: In 1950 the federal government paid 27 per cent of the public assistance bill in this state; the localities' share was 20 per cent; and the state assumed the major burden, 53 per cent. The public assistance bill includes the costs of the four federally aided programs as well as the state-local program of home relief.

Recently the federal government insisted that the state change its system of standards—for the four federally aided programs—from a state-recommended basis to a state-mandated basis. This would have meant imposing upon every public welfare district in the state one state-wide level of assistance, without regard to the varying local conditions, customs, traditions, and resources that exist in the sixty-six public welfare districts of the state. Knowing the varying conditions found, on the one hand, in a great metropolis like New York City and, on the other hand, in a sparsely inhabited rural county of a few thousand population, the state could not

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accept the federal government's requirement. We in New York State insisted, instead, that the localities be given the right to substitute local equivalents for items in the state-wide standard wherever standard items might be impractical because of local conditions. Under the state proposal, the localities would be able, in some measure, to adapt the state-wide standard to local conditions and to maintain the important policy of individualized treatment of the needy—that is, meeting the actual needs of a recipient rather than giving him some arbitrary, fixed standard of assistance that might be more, or less, than his actual needs. The federal government agreed to the state's important modification of the original proposal.

Working with representatives of the local public welfare departments, the state set up the mandatory, state-wide standards, with provisions for local equivalents. This was an enormous and difficult task, for we had to establish a standard of assistance for more than thirty items, including such basic items as food, clothing, shelter, personal and household incidentals, fuel, and utilities. Since you are interested in the financial problems of government, let me give you one simple illustration of the impact of planning welfare budgets. One quart of milk per assistance recipient weekly costs \$5,500,000 yearly. Obviously, our food standard allows much more than this, but the illustration shows the financial effect of a single food item.

How well this new system of standards will work we do not know. Nor shall we know, until we have had several months of experience with the new system, how well or how poorly we have done this job or whether the mandated standards will cost less, or more, than the recommended standards. Local govern-

mental officials were to have an opportunity, we understand, to express themselves at hearings to be conducted by the Temporary State Commission To Study Federally Aided Welfare Programs. This commission was surveying the whole field of federal-state relationships in public welfare, including a second set of federal government requirements concerned with civil service provisions for persons engaged in local public welfare administration. The commission, authorized by the 1951 legislature, has now made its report to the legislature.

A significant part of this whole problem of public assistance costs is related to the development of our contributory social insurance systems, especially old age and survivors insurance. For example, with revisions of the Social Security Act in 1950—increasing the benefits and extending the coverage in old age and survivors insurance—a part of the burden of public dependency was transferred from the tax-supported public assistance rolls to the contributory insurance rolls. These developments in the insurance program made it possible for us in New York State to close nearly 2,400 public assistance cases during the year beginning October, 1950, and to reduce the public assistance grants in another 18,000 cases. Most of these cases were old age assistance cases. It is estimated that the savings in public assistance expenditures in New York State from the liberalization of the old age and survivors insurance program during this first year totaled approximately \$4,400,000. As time goes on, the economic need of more and more older persons, widows, and children will be met through the insurance system rather than through the public assistance system.

While advocating development of a

more effective insurance system to deal with old age, death of the breadwinner, fluctuations in employment, and other factors beyond their control, public welfare administrators have been extending and strengthening public welfare measures to deal with conditions that are amenable to some control. They have developed further their co-operative procedures with state employment services to make certain that the able-bodied on public welfare will have reasonable opportunities in competitive labor markets. They have concentrated attention and effort on rehabilitation programs and on vocational retraining programs. The results of these and other measures account in part for the reversal in the upward trend and the beginning of the gradual downward curve in the public assistance load, as in New York State.

I am sure you are also aware of the good work being done by the New York State Joint Legislative Committee on the Aging, especially its efforts to "sell" the able-bodied, skilled older worker to industry. In these days of increasing longevity, we can no longer evaluate a person by his chronological age alone, yet this measurement is still being applied. A significant commentary in this connection is provided by a study we made of the upstate home relief population in November, 1949, which showed that one-third of the employable men were forty-five years of age or over.

Another group that merits your every consideration consists of the physically handicapped. Experience in industry has shown that these people can, in many instances, work as efficiently as those who are not handicapped. As a group they are cautious and responsible and thus take better care of themselves and of the machines they operate. Their absentee rate, too, is less than for other groups.

We have a number of able handicapped persons on public assistance who could qualify for jobs if work opportunities were available to them.

On October 1, 1950, New York State, through its sixty-six local public welfare districts, put into effect a state-wide program of aid to the disabled, for which part of the costs are now borne by the federal government under the new amendments to the Social Security Act. Approximately 26,700 individuals are being cared for under this program. Practically all these individuals were previously receiving assistance in New York State through our state-local program of home relief. The significant change here is not alone that of new federal aid; more important is the opportunity afforded by the new program for rehabilitation of this most costly type of welfare case.

This brief outline of recent developments in public assistance trends in New York State demonstrates that relief rolls *do* go down when there are employment opportunities; that expansion of the social insurance system transfers some of the burden of public dependency from the tax-supported public assistance system to the contributory insurance system; and that public welfare can, and does, administer services which help dependent persons to become self-supporting.

My own attitudes on public welfare problems might be summarized as follows: Welfare officials do not "own" public welfare. It is public business—everybody's responsibility.

Welfare officials do not know all the answers to problems in their field. New approaches are not only welcome, they are needed. On the other hand, we in public welfare must recite the experience of the past with certain so-called "sim-

ple" or "easy" plans for reducing public welfare burdens, tried and abandoned previously in our history.

It is my belief that the businessmen of America will, in the years ahead, play a major part in resolving our problems of public dependency. I say this because I believe that one of the most significant developments in recent years was the contribution made by outstanding industrial leaders who served on the Advisory Council on Social Security. The council made recommendations to the United States Senate Committee on Finance on revision of the Social Security Act—the first comprehensive revision of that act since it went into effect in 1935. Among the New Yorkers on the Advisory Council were Marion F. Folsom, of Eastman Kodak Company; Delos Walker, of R. H. Macy & Company; William I. Myers, dean of the New York State College of Agriculture; and Miss Mary H. Donlon, chairman of the New York State Workmen's Compensation Board.

The representatives of business and industry on the council exhibited a firm, sound grasp of the whole problem of dependency in the United States. They demonstrated that the businessmen of America not only understand their responsibility to work for solutions of this problem but that they are anxious to join with all other groups of citizens in building a positive program to avoid dependency wherever possible and to make sound provisions for those who become dependent. The strength of that leadership stems from state and local organizations of businessmen, like the Empire State Association of Commerce. We in public welfare need all possible guidance and wisdom. I am confident that, with the help for which we ask, America will get the kind of social insurance and public welfare programs that all of us want.

NEW YORK STATE DEPARTMENT
OF SOCIAL WELFARE
ALBANY, NEW YORK

EDUCATIONAL EXPERIENCE IN SOCIAL WORK AND MEDICINE ON A DOMICILIARY MEDICAL CARE SERVICE¹

BEATRICE S. STONE AND HENRY J. BAKST, M.D.

THE organization, administration, and objectives of the Home Medical Service of the Massachusetts Memorial Hospitals have been described in considerable detail in previous publications.² This service has been providing medical care in the homes of the medically needy individuals in a limited area of Boston for well over seventy-five years.³ During this entire period the facilities of this service have afforded a means by which fourth-year students at the Boston University School of Medicine have had an opportunity to experience the practical problems of general medical practice under careful supervision.

In the summer of 1948 a considerable reorganization of this program resulted in the assumption of responsibility for medical care and teaching on this service by the Department of Preventive Medicine. Since then, greater stress has been placed on prevention and control of illness at the level of the individual

patient, together with a positive approach to the problems of a social, economic, emotional, and environmental nature as they relate to illness. The results of this teaching experience have been very gratifying; and it has seemed desirable to present in some detail the particular integration of the educational experience of medical students and students of social work in this activity.

The organization of the Home Medical Service provides a closely knit, informal relationship between all the participating members. This includes the head of the Department of Preventive Medicine, who is chief of the Genito-infectious Disease Service and a member of the medical staff of the Massachusetts Memorial Hospitals; the director of the Out-Patient Department; and the director of the Home Medical Service, who is associate professor of preventive medicine and assistant visiting physician at the Massachusetts Memorial Hospitals, instructor in medical information at the Boston University School of Social Work, and a member of the medical staff of the Boston City Hospital. These various positions have been set down in detail because they demonstrate the responsibilities which members of the Department of Preventive Medicine have in the teaching of preventive medicine, clinical medicine, administration of medical care, and education of students of social work. The Department of Psychiatry plays a very active role in the teaching program. The actual

¹ From the Department of Preventive Medicine, Boston University School of Medicine, and the Massachusetts Memorial Hospitals, Boston, Massachusetts. This program is aided by a grant from the Commonwealth Fund.

² Henry J. Bakst, M.D., "A Domiciliary Medical Care Program as an Integrated Facility in the Medical Curriculum," *Journal of the Association of American Medical Colleges*, XXV (November, 1950), 406; "Social and Environmental Medicine: The Home Medical Service," *Boston Medical Quarterly*, I (June, 1950), 18.

³ Boston University School of Medicine, *Third Annual Announcement, May 1875: Report of Homeopathic Medical Dispensary, January 1, 1878* (Boston, 1878).

supervision and management of such emotional and psychiatric problems as arise is the responsibility of a member of the Department of Preventive Medicine who is an instructor in mental health.

Since November, 1949, there has been a full-time social worker attached to the Home Medical Service. This member of the organization is on the staff of the Social Service Department of the Massachusetts Memorial Hospitals and is an instructor in medical social work in the Department of Preventive Medicine, as well as faculty supervisor of field work at the Boston University School of Social Work. Students from the School of Social Work have been assigned since January, 1950, to this service for second-year field-work placement under the supervision of the social worker on the Home Medical Service. The responsibilities of the social worker include case work on the Home Medical Service, supervision and teaching of social work students, participation in the instruction of medical students with regard to the social components of illness, as well as the utilization and availability of voluntary and public agencies to meet a variety of patient needs. The director of the Social Service Department supervises and participates actively in the entire program.

A nurse-secretary is responsible for a considerable degree of administrative detail within the Home Medical Service as well as the instruction of externs in basic home-nursing techniques. Two resident physicians serve as preceptors and have the initial responsibility of supervising patient care provided by the externs (fourth-year medical students).

CASE-WORK SERVICES

The function of the social worker on the Home Medical Service with respect

to case work is essentially that of a social worker in any medical setting. There are, however, certain peculiarities of a home medical care program which deserve particular emphasis. The medical problems which are encountered are as many and varied as would be expected in any well-established general practice dealing with substandard or marginal-income families. Since the patients are, for the most part, nonambulatory, a relatively high proportion of home visits must be made by the social worker and social work students. Approximately one-third of the referrals result in home visits, and an average of slightly over three visits are made per patient. Both the extern and the social worker, therefore, have a personal understanding of the patient with respect to his usual and natural environmental circumstances. Another factor of significance is the teamwork approach to the problems of medical care. The integration of medical school and hospital personnel, the utilization of hospital facilities, and the co-operation of voluntary agencies such as the Visiting Nurse Association create for both groups of students a co-ordinated program directed at patient care.

This concept of teamwork has actually extended into the home of the patient to the extent that the Home Medical Service is looked upon as the family source of medical care. The social worker regards the referral from the extern as a request for social evaluation. The ultimate plan for the patient is arrived at after consideration of the wishes of the patient and his family and the evaluation of the situation by the extern and social worker in the light of available community resources. The extern prepares the way for the social worker's visit. This preparation is particularly important in facilitating the

case-work relationship, since it identifies the social worker with the medical institution and assists in establishing the new member of the team as a helping person.

The liaison function of the social worker with the Welfare Department of the city of Boston is another aspect of the program. A significant proportion of the patients are recipients of financial aid in one category or another or are eligible for aid (Fig. 1). The knowledge and

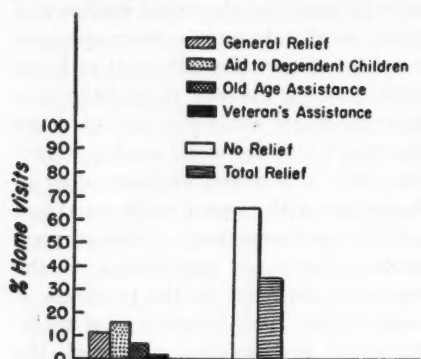


FIG. 1.—Distribution of home visits, relief and nonrelief, May, 1950—April, 1951.

utilization of financial resources available to meet medical and social needs seem to be tangible and essential functions of the social worker, the understanding of which is transmitted directly to both groups of students.

The limited size of the staff, the day-to-day case load, and the number of patients with prolonged illness have created a problem with regard to the maintenance of contact with many patients by the social worker. In most instances the first contact with these patients is with respect to a specific need or problem. Personal contact may terminate for a time, once that service has been provided and it is apparent that the patient is managing fairly ade-

quately. The patient's medical record is referred to from time to time, and conversations are held with the visiting extern about the current situation. Occasionally, at this time, a suggestion is made which the extern carries to the patient, thus giving evidence of continued interest and affording the opportunity for additional consultation as the need arises. The important point has appeared to be the building of the initial relationship with the patient via an extension of the hospital service provided by the extern. It has been noted that this relationship grows readily and continues even without frequent visits by the social worker. Periodically, even though there may be no new social problem, chronic cases are reviewed in social service conferences in which the extern, social worker, and social work students share current and past information concerning the adjustment and social situation of the patient.

TEACHING OF MEDICAL STUDENTS

Throughout the extern's month of experience on the Home Medical Service there is a conscious and planned effort to stress the social, environmental, and emotional aspects of the illness situations with which he is confronted in the day-to-day activities of the service. This is done formally in assigned meetings which include an orientation conference, weekly case conferences, and psychosomatic conferences. In a more informal and, frequently, a more productive fashion, each contact with the social worker and social work students results in a mutual exchange of information.

DAILY REPORT OF CASES

The work of each day begins with a conference which includes the director of the service, both resident physicians,

and all the externs. At this time the cases seen on the previous day are presented and discussed from the point of view of diagnosis, treatment, and prognosis. These meetings provide the opportunity to stress many aspects of patient management as well as to create a background of continuity and co-ordination of patient follow-up. Since externs are reporting on patients they have seen in the home, this daily conference also allows for an occasion to discuss patient management in the light of specific environmental circumstances. It is from these discussions that most of the material selected for the Psychosomatic and Social Service conferences is developed.

SOCIAL SERVICE CONFERENCES

A social service conference is scheduled every Thursday morning as a required part of the medical student's experience on the Home Medical Service. Approximately one hour and fifteen minutes is allotted to this discussion. These conferences have two specific purposes, orientation and case discussions, each of which will be considered separately.

ORIENTATION CONFERENCE

The initial social service conference is directed at the orientation of the group of externs in relation to the function of the social worker and sets up the frame of reference within which medical student, social worker, student of social work, the Visiting Nurse Association, and the staff of the Home Medical Service operate together as a team. The discussion is opened by requesting externs to make general observations with respect to patients whom they have been visiting. Usually this will lead to a presentation of economic and marital problems which provides an opportunity for

the social worker to review the provisions of the Social Security program as they apply to this community. Since the externs have responsibility for inquiring as to the aid status of their patients, this is a tangible area which has specific meaning to them in the light of their first few days of experience on the Home Medical Service. Frequently questions will be raised by externs with respect to opportunities for different racial groups in terms of employment and housing. The stimulus for this type of question derives from the fact that the area served by the Home Medical Service is a low-income slum district in which a large portion of the Negro population of Boston resides.

At this point the social worker may raise questions concerning the matter of how and why the concept of teamwork developed in this medical setting. The discussion which follows gradually focuses on consideration of the patient as a whole in relation to the environment in which he is living. The next step is to bring to the group an awareness of the meaning of illness to the patient and the function of the social worker in relation to amelioration of attitudes and circumstances that impede medical treatment. At this time it is indicated that problems which arise in time of illness and require social service help are not necessarily restricted to the so-called "underprivileged group." This is emphasized in relation to the problems of long-term disease such as diabetes, tuberculosis, cancer, or heart disease. Usually there is at this point some discussion from the group in terms of attitudes toward illness and the planning necessary to insure adequate treatment. This includes such matters as resistance to sanatorium care or hospitalization, inability to maintain a prescribed diet, care of children

during a mother's hospitalization, and the problem of patients who leave the hospital against advice.

Attention is paid to problems of personal interrelationship which any physician in practice may be called upon to face together with such community resources as are available to meet these needs. Adoptions, marital discord, behavior deviations in children, and vocational training or counseling are illustrations of such matters. The coordinating function of the social worker with respect to other services in the hospital and other agencies is also stressed. Securing of collateral information and the answering of medical inquiries fall within this category.

The orientation conference terminates with a discussion of a mimeographed form used by externs in making referrals to social service. The social service referral form and its use are mentioned in terms of the necessity for the extern to supply adequate identifying information. The extern is requested to supply specific data when making a referral which include marital status, economic status, medical diagnosis, and the presence of pre-existing physical or mental limitations. The extern is also required to state the reason for referral of the patient to social service. He is asked whether or not this has been discussed with the patient and his family and whether or not a home visit is indicated. In the course of completing this form, the extern's attention is necessarily directed toward the patient in terms of his mental, physical, and environmental status and his needs in these areas.

CASE CONFERENCES

The Thursday morning conferences following the initial orientation exercise are devoted to a discussion of the medi-

cal and social needs of individual patients. Usually two patients currently active with the group of externs are selected for discussion, with preference being given to those patients in whom the externs have expressed some interest. The actual selection is made by the social worker, who clears the selection with the director of the Home Medical Service.

As conferences have progressed and as experience has been accumulated in relation to the selection of patients, an effort has been made to group certain problems for case presentation. In general, two distinct approaches to problems are utilized. One method consists of grouping patients by disease categories which are generally associated with a major social component such as heart disease, cancer, tuberculosis, etc. The other method stresses the social, economic, or environmental aspects of the problem. In this event two patients from families receiving Aid to Dependent Children or Old Age Assistance may be presented to provide an opportunity to introduce the medical and social implications of pediatric or geriatric problems. The choice of method for any given conference is dictated by the type of current material that is available.

Conferences are attended by the director of the Home Medical Service, the social worker, and the supervisor of the local unit of the Visiting Nurse Association, together with the group of externs and students of social work. The head of the Department of Preventive Medicine and the director of the Social Service Department of the Massachusetts Memorial Hospitals are frequently present. Social workers and social work students on other services in the hospital may attend as observers and are invited as participants if one of the patients to

be presented is known to them. Of particular interest is the presence of representatives from public and private agencies in the community who are invited to attend when there has been a joint social service responsibility for the patient or when referral to a specific agency outside the hospital setting is indicated. The presence of these representatives at the conferences has been of inestimable value to both groups of students in developing a firsthand, well-defined concept of the objectives and organization of a variety of social agencies.

The director of the Home Medical Service leads the conference. The extern is responsible for the presentation of the clinical data and the social problem. The social worker or social work student who has followed up on the referral presents the evaluation of the social situation. The director of the Home Medical Service then summarizes the problem and opens the discussion for the group. Out of this discussion are developed the subsequent steps in the medical and social plan for the patient. The social worker makes the final summarization, outlining the goals which may be achieved from the point of view of resources within the patient, his family, the hospital, and the community.

PSYCHOSOMATIC CONFERENCES

These are two-hour conferences conducted each week by a member of the Department of Psychiatry for the entire group of externs. The objectives of these meetings include emphasis on interviewing techniques, guidance in the development of a satisfactory relationship with patients, and advice with respect to the management of emotional problems as they arise in day-to-day practice. Cases are selected for this con-

ference by the director of the Home Medical Service. The criteria for selection are the presence of significant psychic or emotional factors or a medical problem with considerable psychological overlay. The extern makes the initial presentation and includes an evaluation of interpersonal relationships, other environmental factors, family composition, economic status, and housing as they affect the illness situation.

The social worker is responsible for the presentation of complementary social data. This is secured by home visit, examination of the hospital social service files, social service index, or contact with representatives of other agencies involved. If the patient is active with a social agency in the community, a representative from this agency is invited to attend. This conference, like all other conferences on the Home Medical Service, meets a practical need in furthering the medical plan and outlining future steps in the interest of patient care. Active discussion by the externs is elicited in terms of understanding the patient's problem. Suggestions are worked out in terms of approaches to patients which can be utilized by the physician in general practice.

In the event that it is suggested that the extern continue to provide medical care, the extern continues to do so under the supervision of the instructor of mental health of the Department of Preventive Medicine. This member of the department provides continuity in the referral of patients to the Psychosomatic Clinic as well as supervision of the management of patients with emotional problems on the Home Medical Service. Referrals to social service may be made collaterally depending upon the problem involved.

FIELD-WORK PLACEMENT OF SOCIAL WORK STUDENTS

The Home Medical Service provides an unusual opportunity for the training of social work students from the point of view of diversity of medical problems as well as the variety of social situations which are encountered. The home visiting which this service requires encourages not only understanding of the patient but consideration of the patient in terms of his natural environment. While the experienced social worker like the experienced physician may be able to evaluate and appreciate a patient's reaction or point of view because of the accumulation of a background of hard-earned, firsthand knowledge, this is not true of the student of medicine or social work. The beginner must be taught and given the opportunity to understand the patient in terms of his integration in society. He must learn the manner by which the integrative processes break down and the manifestations which develop as a result of failure of adjustment. Intellectually, only a portion of this attitude may be obtained by didactic teaching. Insight and understanding develop as a result of the mature acceptance of responsibility and the opportunity to carry on the management of the problem at the source of its development, the patient's home. It is quite apparent that the social work student who sees a patient in his natural setting is enjoying quite a different experience from that of talking to him in a clinic or a social worker's office.

The social work students participate actively in the social service conference in the Home Medical Service. As the year progresses, most of the case presentations at the social service conferences are carried by the social work students under the direction of their

supervisor in much the same way as the medical students carry responsibility for the presentation of the illness situation.

Although the initial contact with the patient for the social work student is usually at home, the social work student continues to work with the patient if he is referred to an out-patient clinic at the Massachusetts Memorial Hospitals for follow-up. This allows for the development of familiarity with the admitting process and the operation of various clinics in the Out-Patient Department. If hospitalization is necessary, the social work student continues to work with the patient in the hospital and also assists in discharge plans for the patient. Thus it is possible for social work students on the Home Medical Service to develop a knowledge of the function of the hospital in providing medical care and the meaning of the hospital and its services to the individual patient, as well as an appreciation of the significance of the extension of hospital service into the home of the patient.

It is obvious that the Home Medical Service provides a unique opportunity for social work students and medical students to learn together. It has been demonstrated that these two groups of graduate students, both of whose careers involve an understanding of people, derive a real value from sharing this educational experience. This was very clearly stated by one of our social work students in a final field-work report: "Both student groups have an opportunity to see each other informally and learn how each profession may help the other." The student years offer the most appropriate time to develop the basis for mutual understanding and may be thought of as providing the groundwork for sound co-operation between both professional

groups in the interest of patient care. It would appear that this is a highly appropriate relationship, which is a natural outgrowth of the teamwork concept of patient care.

UTILIZATION OF SERVICES

Of particular interest are the reasons for referral of patients to the Social Serv-

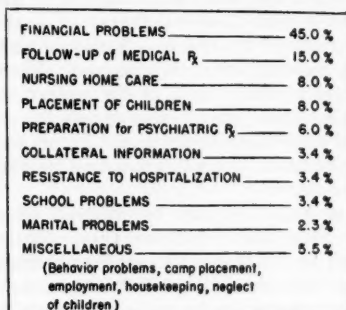


FIG. 2.—Causes of referral to social service, January 1—June 30, 1950.

ice Department and the associated medical conditions involved. A review of the first 110 cases with the distribution of reasons for referral during the six-month period January 1 to June 30, 1950, is given in Figure 2. The particular distribution in this group is undoubtedly a reflection of the social and economic status of the area which is served. However, if these referrals are considered from the point of view of the illness situation, it is quite apparent that referral in the case of chronic illness is twice as frequent as it is with acute illness (Fig. 3). This is perhaps obvious but emphasizes the fact that the rate of utilization of the Social Service Department is significantly related to the incidence of chronic disease. If this problem is considered from the point of view of age groups, another predictable factor is brought to light. During the same six-month period, January 1 to June 30,

1950, a total of 1,821 patients below twenty years of age and 400 patients over forty years of age were visited by the Home Medical Service. In the younger group there were 25 referrals to the

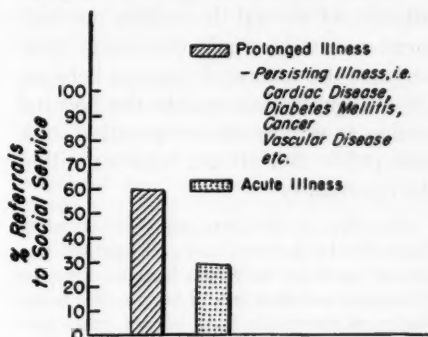


FIG. 3.—Distribution by type of illness, of referrals to social service, January 1—June 30, 1950.

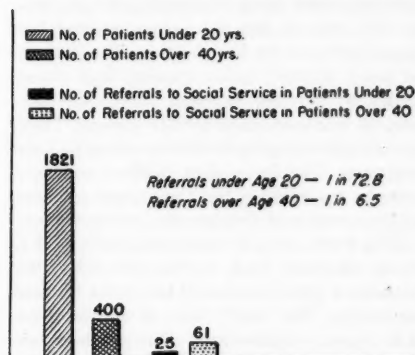


FIG. 4.—Number of referrals to social service by special age groups, January 1—June 30, 1950.

Social Service Department, or 1 referral for every 72.84 patients. In the older age group there were 61 referrals, or 1 referral for every 6.56 patients (Fig. 4). The relationship between age and the incidence of chronic disease is quite apparent. It is clear, therefore, that the rate of utilization of the Social Service Department is modified sharply by the age level of the patient load and the incidence of chronic disease.

CASE REPORTS

Although the integration of the learning process of medical students and students of social work has been presented in some detail, it is thought that the presentation of several illustrative medical-social situations would effectively demonstrate the teamwork aspects between the two professions within the hospital setting as well as the co-operative work with public and private agencies within the community.

Case No. 1.—A forty-two-year-old white housewife. In January, 1951, this patient was seen at home by an extern because of severe chest pain and shortness of breath. She had a history of rheumatic fever twenty years ago. On physical examination a pericardial friction rub was thought to be present, and heart rhythm was irregular. A diagnosis of recurrent acute rheumatic fever was made. Hospitalization was advised, but the patient refused because of concern for her children. The patient had been married twice, having had three children by her first husband, whom she had divorced, and one child by her second. They were all boys, ranging from two and a half to eight years. The three older children are supported by their father, but the patient receives supplementation of this income for the youngest child from Aid to Dependent Children. Her present husband is a cardiac invalid, who maintains a room by himself but visits his son occasionally. The family lives in a third-floor flat in a poor neighborhood. This problem was referred to the social worker by the extern in charge of the patient.

The social work student learned that the patient was willing to be hospitalized but was realistically concerned about plans for the care of the children. Superimposed on this was the fear that her first husband would take steps to obtain custody of the first three children.

In co-operation with the patient, the social worker from the Boston Department of Public Welfare, and two private agencies in the community, plans were made for the care of the children during the mother's hospitalization. While the patient was in the hospital, the social work student visited her and kept her informed about the children. Plans were made prior to the patient's discharge from the hospital to

provide a housekeeper and to stagger the return of the children. The youngest child was returned one week after the discharge from the hospital. Subsequently, the patient continued to be followed in the Cardiac Clinic of the Out-Patient Department. At present the three older children are in a summer-camp placement, and the youngest child is in a foster-home. The patient's physical condition has improved markedly, and she plans to go to work this summer. The patient had been under considerable strain as a result of interference in the care of the three older children by her first husband, who is legally responsible for their support, although they are in the custody of the mother. The progress of this patient demonstrates the relation of social and environmental factors to an illness situation with a superimposed functional component.

Case No. 2.—A fifty-five-year-old colored female with diabetes mellitus. This patient was referred to the Home Medical Service on discharge from the hospital following a second mid-leg amputation because of gangrene. She had been referred to social service after the first amputation and was provided with an artificial limb, which she learned to use remarkably well. Her second referral involved the matter of making arrangements for her to be evaluated in the Surgical Follow-up Clinic in relation to the securing of a second prosthesis and planning for the retraining that would be involved in rehabilitation.

The patient, despite the loss of both limbs, maintained a cheerful attitude and was determined to walk again. Though the husband is steadily employed, successive hospitalizations had depleted their modest savings. Financial assistance was necessary to procure a prosthesis. Arrangements were made for the patient to attend a rehabilitation center. During this period she was seen regularly by externs on the Home Medical Service to maintain diabetic control. At this time the patient is able to get about her home with the aid of a cane and walks outdoors with the aid of crutches. She is now able to do her own housework. She continues to be followed by the Home Medical Service but feels that she will be able to resume attendance in the Out-Patient Department in a few months. This patient, through the use of community agencies in her behalf and through her own determination, has been able to achieve a state in which she can take care of her own needs and those of her household. Although under direc-

tion and supervision, this goal was achieved through the direct and mutual efforts of an assigned fourth-year medical student and student of social work.

Case No. 3.—A seven-year-old white female. The patient is the next oldest child in a family of six children living in a third-floor tenement in a poor neighborhood. Although the father is employed, the family income is marginal. There is a history of marital friction, and the father is said to be alcoholic. The mother is frail and undernourished in appearance.

At the time that the patient was seen at home by an extern because of an episode of acute rheumatic fever, a protective agency was working with the patient's mother in an effort to improve the home situation. Because of the patient's physical condition and the unsatisfactory home conditions, her transfer to a hospital for children with rheumatic fever was advised. This was accomplished through the participation of a social work student, and the patient remained there for three months. It was hoped that by this time the conditions at home would improve sufficiently so that the patient could convalesce properly at home. This did not prove to be the case, and further evaluation pointed to the desirability of foster-home placement. The protective agency was also considering camp plans for two of the other children. The patient is now being followed in the Children's Cardiac Clinic, and plans are under way in co-operation with interested children's agencies and the patient's parents to place her in a medically supervised foster-home.

Case No. 4.—A thirty-four-year-old white male. This patient was seen at home by an extern on the Home Medical Service, and a diagnosis of acute infectious hepatitis was established. The protracted period of hospitalization and convalescence posed serious financial problems for the wife and three small children. This situation was referred to the Social Service Department, and an application for assistance from Aid to Dependent Children was facilitated on the basis of the patient's incapacitation. On discharge from the hospital, the patient convalesced at home and continued to be followed by the Home Medical Service. He improved as was anticipated and was able to resume employment three months after the onset of his illness. During his hospitalization and period of convalescence at home, supportive visits were made regularly to the patient and his family.

This situation is typical of those in which a family is managing well under ordinary circumstances, but the illness of the wage-earner for an extended period of time makes it necessary to secure financial assistance for himself and his dependents. The prompt co-operation of the social work student in accumulating essential data expedited the eventual solution.

Case No. 5.—A sixty-eight-year-old white widow. This patient was seen at home because of severe bronchial asthma and arteriosclerotic heart disease. She lives alone on the third floor of an old frame house and is dependent entirely on Old Age Assistance for her income. A married son lives in the western part of the country and a daughter lives in a neighboring state. She is an intelligent person but was found to be demanding and exacting. She was hospitalized because of severe asthma, and on discharge it was learned that her landlady refused to allow her to return to her apartment. The landlady felt that the patient was unable to take care of herself. The patient, however, refused to consider any other living arrangements. As a result of the efforts of the social worker, the patient's daughter agreed to come to Boston to remain with her mother for a while. This plan was agreeable to both the patient and the landlady. The cost of hospitalization and medical care at home was defrayed by Old Age Assistance. In October, 1949, the patient's asthma became severe again, hospitalization was advised, but the patient would not consider this or any other plan which would involve moving out of her apartment. It was decided, therefore, to carry on treatment at home. As a result of continued conversations with the patient, the externs learned that her vision had been failing for some time. This was the first time that this information had come to light, and the significance of this circumstance to an older individual confined to home was immediately apparent. Despite her severe asthma, she was transported to the eye clinic, where it was decided that considerable improvement of vision would be possible with proper lenses. Immediately after glasses were supplied, this patient's entire attitude changed, her asthmatic attacks became less severe and less frequent, and she became co-operative and agreeable. Her entire appearance changed so that in January, 1951, when arrangements were made for her to have an X-ray, the social worker had difficulty in recognizing her. The demanding attitude which had been characteristic of her earlier contact

with the hospital, externs, physicians, and visiting nurse had disappeared almost entirely. She spoke warmly about her son and grandchild out West and the new grandchild who was expected soon.

Because of the facilities available through the Home Medical Service and the hospital in co-operation with the Division of Old Age Assistance and the Visiting Nurse Association, this patient had been able to maintain herself in her own apartment as she wished. She has continued to make an entirely satisfactory adjustment.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

These cases serve to emphasize the manner in which the services of two student groups, medical and social work, have been closely integrated in a teaching program in which each may learn for himself and at the same time understand and appreciate the problems of the other. As an educational experience, the results have been most gratifying

and productive. It is beyond question that students exposed to a learning process of this nature develop a relationship which becomes a permanent part of their attitude toward each other in later life. The medical student is fully aware of the significance of social environmental, economic, and emotional factors in relation to illness situations. He cannot help but be fully aware of the important contribution which the social worker makes as a member of the medical team. The social work student, on the other hand, becomes fully cognizant of the problems involved in diagnosis, prognosis, and treatment and learns to develop those techniques that will be most helpful in assisting the physician to a ready solution of the problem.

BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

HOW SHALL A COMMUNITY MEASURE THE ADEQUACY OF ITS WELFARE PROGRAM?

ELLERY F. REED

ONE of the answers to the question regarding the adequacy of a welfare program has been comparison of the given city with others with respect to volume of service rendered and amount of money expended on a per capita of population basis. This approach has been encouraged by the Social Statistics Project, now nationally under the auspices of Community Chests and Councils of America. This project continuously gathers service data for some fifty city areas located throughout the country and biennially gathers financial data for over twenty such areas. The availability of such data by types of work and on a per capita basis for a number of cities has invited its use for comparative purposes.

Planning committees of councils of social agencies increasingly inquire as to how their own city compares in volume and cost of a particular service with other cities. There is a tendency to judge the adequacy of the program in the home city in such manner. If a comparison shows much less service and expenditure for a given type of work by the home town than by some other particular city or cities, the data are likely to be used to support arguments for increased service and increased budgets. If, on the contrary, the home city is high as compared with other cities, such facts may be kept confidential. If such data should become known to critics of welfare work, the rate might be used to support claims that the

welfare program in the home community is extravagant and that appropriations should be reduced and contributions curtailed.

Because of such danger, data of this character have been known to be definitely suppressed. The many attacks on public welfare administration and criticism of private agencies make this understandable. In Cincinnati, for example, the chairman of the Finance Committee of City Council at one time opposed requested increases of appropriations for the public health department on the grounds that these were already, on a per capita basis, unusually large, as compared with other cities. More recent examples affecting another public department could be given, involving adverse publicity based on similar comparisons. There is thus a practical tendency to establish norms or standards for a given city in terms of per capita comparisons with other cities.

This practical trend has been reinforced by some students of the problem of social work measurements. For example, Gertrude M. Hengerer, of the Research Department of the Welfare Council of Metropolitan Los Angeles, in a work entitled *Social Welfare Standards*, speaking of the data gathered by Community Chests and Councils of America, has said: "Such data not only provide information regarding the services and expenditures of individual communities, but also indicate norms for such services

and expenditures as represented by the contributing areas."¹

Further examples of norms that have been set are also cited by Miss Hengerer. The basic minimum standard set by the national organization for public health nursing is cited as "one public health nurse for each five thousand of the population, this ratio increasing to one to two thousand, where bedside nursing of the sick is offered." Also cited is the standard set by the National Recreation Association, which recommends a per capita expenditure of \$3.00 for public recreation service to be adjusted in relation to changes in the value of the dollar.

Mrs. Esther Moore, director of the Department of Statistics and Research, Community Chests and Councils of America, in a paper read at the National Conference of Social Work, 1951, entitled "Service Accounting and Its Role in the Community," said: "He [the executive of a sizable case-work agency] looks to service statistics for some indication of changing needs and conditions. *He uses statistical comparisons of his city with others as rough guides to unmet needs and to the overall balance between types of service coverage.*"² And she added: "I believe that the absence of accepted standards relating to quantity of services is a major factor in our present lack of real use of the statistics for community planning."

In view of such practical and theoretical trends, the use of comparative welfare data on a per capita basis to establish community norms or standards should receive careful study. Is it possible from such data to establish norms by which a

city may measure the adequacy of its welfare program?

Service and financial data reveal a wide range of difference in the volume and cost of welfare work on a per capita basis as among representative cities. For example, preliminary service data issued by Community Chests and Councils for the year 1949, when reduced to rates per 100,000 of the population for ten cities (viz., Buffalo, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Dallas, Dayton, Indianapolis, Louisville, Memphis, Milwaukee, and St. Louis), showed that the average monthly number of families receiving public assistance ranged from 61 per 100,000 for Memphis to 745 for Cincinnati, the average being 365. For Aid to Dependent Children the rate ranged from 91 for Dayton to 517 for St. Louis. The rates for the average monthly number of individual cases receiving service from private family-service agencies ranged from 152 in Louisville to 418 for Cincinnati. Children in foster-homes ranged from 49 in Dallas to 192 in Cincinnati and 215 in Indianapolis. Dependent children in institutions ranged from 43 in Dallas to 156 in Louisville. Average monthly visits to mental hygiene clinics ranged from 18 per 100,000 of the population in St. Louis to 82 in Cincinnati. Visits to other clinics ranged from 599 for Dayton to 4,990 for St. Louis.

Can usable norms or standards be derived from such data? Is there a certain number of public relief cases per hundred thousand of the population that will represent a satisfactory standard or solution of the relief problem in all these cities? Can a satisfactory standard be set for the number of private family-agency cases or for the number of dependent children per hundred thousand of the population, and so on? Would averages of such data for a group of cities yield such standards? Can

¹ Gertrude M. Hengerer, *Social Welfare Standards* (Research Department, Welfare Council Metropolitan Los Angeles, Publication No. 8 [Los Angeles, 1950]), p. 15.

² My italics.

Cincinnati conclude that because it has the highest rate of any of these cities for general assistance cases that it is supporting more people on relief than are in need of such assistance? Can it conclude by the same token that its private family agencies are serving an unnecessarily high number of family-service cases?

The same picture and the same questions are posed by the comparative financial data. These financial data for 1948 on the basis of per capita comparisons (using preliminary 1950 population data) showed that in general public assistance expenditures the range was from 27 cents per capita in Memphis to \$4.12 in Cincinnati. The average for the ten cities was \$1.66. For support of private family-service agencies, the range was from 35 cents for Dallas to 86 cents in Cincinnati, with an average of 59 cents for the ten cities. Expenditures per capita for all welfare and health services, public and private, for the residents of the ten city areas listed above, ranged in 1948 from \$25.62 for Memphis to \$49.22 for Cincinnati.

It is the unanimous conviction of those in Cincinnati who are closest to the social services such as public relief, private family welfare service, care of dependent children, and similar agencies that more such service and relief is needed rather than less. This would doubtless be true in some of the other cities compared even if they had as many cases and as much expenditure as Cincinnati has for these fields of service. There is reason to believe that the extent of social need in some of these cities may be even greater than in Cincinnati. Informed opinion in fact is that the need for welfare and health services is greater in all cities than the provisions made for meeting the need. If this is true, any norm or standard based on statistics of service ren-

dered, without reference to the extent of need in these fields, would be too low.

The idea of establishing standards or norms on the basis of per capita of population data for different cities apparently, however, rests on the assumption that the need for health and welfare services in the different cities is approximately the same relative to population. For example, a standard as to number of children in foster-homes per 100,000, either of the child population or of the general population, would rest on the assumption that the relative need for such homes was approximately equal in the respective cities. Examination of comparative data on social and economic conditions and demographic character of population in different cities does not support such an assumption. These data indicate a wide range in social and economic conditions as among cities, and it is these basic conditions that determine the amount of welfare and health service needed by a community. Unfortunately, the amount of service too often bears little relation to need, being low in some cities where data on social conditions indicate that the need is unusually great.

An example of the wide range in social conditions as among cities is seen in the matter of housing. A comparative study made by the Public Health Federation of Cincinnati in 1945 rated twenty-five large cities on the basis of 1940 census data in respect to (a) overcrowded housing; (b) housing in need of major repairs; (c) housing units having no bath or shower; and (d) housing units having no inside flush toilets. Seven of the ten cities under comparison in this paper were included in this comparative study of housing. The percentage of dwelling units overcrowded (those having more than 1.5 persons per room) in these seven cities was as follows: Buffalo, 2.0; Cleve-

land, 3.1; Milwaukee, 3.5; Indianapolis, 4.5; Cincinnati, 9.5; St. Louis, 9.9; and Louisville, 10.8. The number of overcrowded dwellings relative to population in Louisville, St. Louis, and Cincinnati was approximately five times as great as in Buffalo.

The percentage of dwelling units, in need of major repairs in these cities was as follows: Milwaukee, 4.6; St. Louis, 5.4; Buffalo, 6.4; Cleveland, 6.4; Louisville, 13.1; Cincinnati, 15.6; and Indianapolis, 17.7. Here again the range is great. The proportionate number of dwellings needing major repairs was several times as great in Indianapolis, Cincinnati, and Louisville as in Milwaukee. Similarly great differences appeared in relation to housing with no bath or showers and housing units having no inside flush toilets.*

Bad housing and the slum conditions with which it is characteristically associated are generally accepted as one of the very good indexes of social need. Spot-map studies allocating to census tracts the clients of agencies dealing with destitution, family problems, dependent and neglected children, delinquency, health problems, etc., have uniformly shown a concentration of clients in the deteriorated city areas. This was strikingly brought out by a recent study in Cincinnati, where such concentration proved to be true even for the leading private case-work agencies which were placing emphasis upon service to families and individuals for noneconomic problems. If this housing index is reliable, some cities have much more extensive social need than others.

The volume of social need in any city is also related to certain characteristics of the population. A city having an unusually large percentage of persons in the older age groups may be expected as a

result to have more families and individuals with problems directly or indirectly traceable to this age factor. This will be evident not only in relatively large numbers eligible for Old Age Assistance but also in many persons having health problems, problems of family relationship, problems of employment, etc.

Cities differ greatly in their percentage of population sixty-five years of age and over. For example, the 1940 census showed the following number of white persons per 100,000 of the white population sixty-five years and over for the following cities: Memphis, 5,252; Cleveland, 5,626; Indianapolis, 7,686; St. Louis, 8,048; and Cincinnati, 9,064. Cincinnati and St. Louis would thus be expected to have more problems related to advanced age than Memphis or Cleveland.

Another characteristic of populations that may affect the volume of social need is the relative number of persons belonging to underprivileged minority groups. The 1940 nonwhite population as a percentage of total population in the ten cities was as follows: Milwaukee, 1.6; Buffalo, 3.2; Dayton, 9.6; Cleveland, 9.7; Cincinnati, 12.2; Indianapolis, 13.2; St. Louis, 13.4; Louisville, 14.8; Dallas, 17.1; and Memphis, 41.5. Thus Memphis had twenty-six times as many nonwhite persons in proportion to its population as Milwaukee. Cincinnati, which was a near-median city in this particular, had over seven times as many nonwhite persons per 100,000 of the population as Milwaukee.

Certain mortality rates may also be regarded as indexes of the volume of social need in a city. Such mortality rates as those relating to infants and to deaths from tuberculosis are strikingly higher in the poorer sections of the cities than in the privileged areas. Recent refined and

specific mortality rates will not be available until the necessary 1950 census data are published. However, the annual average tuberculosis mortality rate per 100,000 of the total population for the years 1943-47 for the ten cities in this study is given by the *Tuberculosis Statistical Year Book for 1948* as follows: Cincinnati, 65; Louisville, 65; Cleveland, 54; Buffalo, 54; Memphis, 53; Dayton, 53; Indianapolis, 46; St. Louis, 44; Milwaukee, 35; and Dallas, 33. The rates for white and non-white, respectively, were not given by the *Year Book*, presumably because of lack of reliable estimates as to the total number of nonwhites in the population for the years 1943-47.

Wage data also show considerable differences among cities even within the same area of the country. For example, the Ohio State Bureau of Unemployment Compensation published the 1950 average weekly earnings of workers covered by the Ohio Unemployment Compensation Law for four Ohio counties as follows: Cuyahoga (Cleveland), \$69.82; Montgomery (Dayton), \$67.98; Hamilton (Cincinnati), \$62.57; and Franklin (Columbus), \$58.94. Weekly earnings in Cleveland were 18.5 per cent more than those in Columbus and 11.6 per cent more than those in Cincinnati.

This differential in wages does not seem to be offset by the cost of living; at least in the case of Cincinnati and Cleveland. The Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated the cost of the budget which they have designed as a modest but adequate standard of living for an urban worker's family of four persons in October, 1950, as \$3,733 in Cincinnati and \$3,630 in Cleveland.³ No corresponding data were given for Dayton or Columbus. These wage data still are not conclusive, as they

represent average weekly wages rather than annual earnings and so omit periods of unemployment. These wage data also are *average* figures telling nothing of the distribution of wage-earners in terms of earnings.

Marked differences in the per capita buying income in the ten cities included in this study for 1949 are shown by the estimates of the *Sales Management Magazine* (May 10, 1950, p. 90) as follows: Indianapolis, \$1,790; Cleveland, \$1,662; Milwaukee, \$1,638; Cincinnati, \$1,623; St. Louis, \$1,604; Louisville, \$1,546; Dallas, \$1,537; Dayton, \$1,445; Buffalo, \$1,441; and Memphis, \$1,340. Thus the average per capita buying income according to these estimates in Indianapolis was 33.6 per cent greater than in Memphis.

In view of such wide differences as among cities in their social, demographic, and economic conditions, is it possible to establish norms or standards as to the volume of the various kinds of social service per unit of population which would be valid for all cities? The above data indicate that the volume of need in different cities varies greatly, and consequently fixed standards in terms of cases, etc., per 100,000 of the population, or per capita expenditures for various types of service, will not be appropriate for all cities. These data indicate rather the logic of relating the volume of social service in each city to the volume of need in that city. Some of the above data, and many more that might be added, indicate that in certain cities where social need is greatest welfare services on a per capita basis are least. This fact raises further question as to the possibility of using service data for different cities to establish norms or standards. Parenthetically, also, it may be added that, since social and economic conditions fluctuate great-

³ *Monthly Labor Review*, XXVII, No. 2 (February, 1951), 153.

ly from one period to another, a standard which might be suitable at one time would not indefinitely remain so.

Comparative health and welfare data as between cities may even be dangerous if misused. The city that happens to be far above the norm in the amount of service rendered, and amount of money spent per capita of the population, may still be far from meeting its social and health needs. If social workers are careless in interpreting such data and use it unscrupulously when it serves their purpose, they open the way for welfare opponents to use similar data when possible to defeat appropriations for health and welfare.

Comparative data as between cities are interesting and may be used to good purpose to raise questions and stimulate further inquiry into social and economic conditions, types of agencies doing a given kind of work in the different cities, their standards of eligibility and service, comparative wealth, standards of giving, and tax support for welfare work. However, the adequacy of the various health and welfare services in a community must be determined relative to the existing volume of need for such services in that community.

RESEARCH DEPARTMENT
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ITALIAN SOCIAL WORK EDUCATION

CHARLES T. O'REILLY

LIKE American sociology, American social work has managed to grow to a respectable age without paying too much attention to foreign activities and developments. Except in certain areas—for instance, foreign social insurance programs—American social workers are not very well acquainted with what is being done abroad in this field.

Common traditions and a somewhat similar frame of reference can help to bridge part of the gap that exists between social work in Great Britain and that in the United States. But social work that stems from a different tradition, whose origins have little in common with those of American social work, will appear strange indeed to the American social worker. This kind of social work in such an area, however, provides some interesting contrasts with our American work.

Originating in a non-Anglo-Saxon tradition and being built up under different socio-economic conditions, Italian social work has developed and operates in a way that may seem somewhat strange to the American observer. These differences have occasioned some depreciating comments by Americans, and, with our usual flair for wanting to get things done, Americans have at times been rather free with suggestions for improving Italian methods. Such attitudes usually result in American frustration and Italian skepticism about American ability to appreciate cultural differences.

The following description of Italian social work education shows something of the Italian social worker's training and presents some of the problems that face the Italian schools of social work.

The private social agency as we know it in the United States is rarely found in Italy. Large public agencies that resemble American state or federal agencies probably provide the closest parallels to American social work that can be found in Italy. There are public assistance workers, but the case worker is rarely found. Considerable reliance is placed upon private charity, and the church plays a large role in the field of institutional care and assistance.

The Italian social worker has yet to gain recognition outside the traditional Italian field of industrial social work. Some social workers are employed by public agencies, a few are to be found in child-guidance centers and in medical and psychiatric clinics, and a beginning has been made in bringing them into the field of probation, which is still new in Italy. But the principal field for social workers remains in industry, where they perform functions akin to personnel counseling, assist those with insurance and pension claims, operate welfare programs, and, in general, perform many services that would be found in family welfare agencies in the United States.

The important part played by industrial social work in the development of Italian social welfare is indicated by the fact that professional social work education in Italy began with the open-

ing of a school for the training of industrial social workers in Milan in 1921. In 1928 the Italian government opened a school for social workers in Rome. As in the case of the graduates of the earlier school, the graduates of the Rome school were employed mainly in industry. About thirteen hundred factories are said to have provided the services of a social worker in the period before the second World War.

Although there had been a considerable prewar development in the social services, the needs created by the destruction of the war period showed gaps in welfare programs and also in the number of social workers and in their training. Awareness of this situation, coupled with the fruitful growth of ideas due to contacts with foreign social workers during the immediate postwar period, contributed to the movement for the establishment of new schools of social work, the first of which was opened in 1945. In the beginning the new schools had a high enrolment, which later declined somewhat. The financial assistance of the Aiuti Internazionale, an Italian government agency which was established to administer the UNRRA funds that helped to start the schools, has enabled them to continue their work. All the schools of social work receive two-thirds of their operating expenses, plus a library and scholarship fund, from this agency. Perhaps the main problem confronting these schools is financial support, and the termination of the assistance of the Aiuti Internazionale in the current year will probably present insurmountable difficulties for many of them.

The Italian schools of social work have no over-all organization comparable to our American Association of Schools of Social Work. The need for

such an organization is partly met, however, by the existence of two organizations of schools. Six schools belong to the Ente Nazionale Scuole Italiane di Servizio Sociale, or ENSIS; three belong to the Unione Nazionale Scuole Assistenti Sociale, or UNSAS; one is under pontifical auspices; and one is affiliated with the University of Rome. This latter affiliation is a rather tenuous one, however, and, practically speaking, none of the schools can be said to have university affiliation as have most of the American schools of social work. Except for the University of Rome school, the formal course of study lasts two years, although several of the schools plan to introduce the third year, which the Rome school already requires. The Italian schools of social work have found that it is difficult to give the necessary education in two years without sacrificing either generic or specialized training; hence there is a trend toward a third year devoted to specialization. At the present time all the schools emphasize generic material in the first year of study.

The entrance requirements of the schools of social work are graduation from a *scuola media superiore*, roughly the equivalent of the completion of the first year of college in the United States, and a minimum age of eighteen and a maximum age of forty. But the schools prefer that the students be at least nineteen or twenty years old and not over thirty-five. The academic requirement is the same as for entrance to the university.

Many of the students in the schools of social work have transferred from the universities, often in the hope of finding better opportunities in a new profession than in one of the overcrowded traditional occupations. Of the almost seven hundred students enrolled in social work

courses in 1948-49, 14 per cent had already received university degrees. Women made up 65 per cent of the student body, and the majority of the men were to be found in the first year of study. The rate of attrition among the men students is very high, as is shown by the fact that only 6 per cent of the 1949 graduates were men. This is not surprising when one considers the limited opportunities that Italian social work offers to men at the present time. The social worker's status is uncertain, and there is a restricted field of employment for new workers and a great deal of unemployment among experienced workers. Of more than seventy graduates of one school of social work in 1947, only fifteen were in 1949 employed full time in social work. Nine had social work positions on a part-time basis, but the others were either in completely unrelated fields of employment or were unemployed. This situation was essentially unchanged in the latter part of the year 1950.

Social work salaries range from about twenty thousand to sixty thousand lire a month, with the average about thirty thousand lire. Since the lire is worth about 620 to the dollar and the cost of living in Italy is probably about 30 or 40 per cent below what it is in the United States, it can be seen that the outlook for the prospective social worker is not an encouraging one.

The degrees granted by the schools of social work are not recognized by the government, and therefore they have no academic value. Without a recognized degree, the social worker lacks the status and prestige that are so important in Italy. If the social worker happens to have a university degree, he may qualify for some desirable positions, but it is the university degree and not the

social work training that is usually the deciding factor with respect to employment. Until the social work degree is given the sanction of the government, which in many ways would be equivalent to licensing, responsible public employment and opportunities for advancement will not be open to social workers.

It has been suggested that the social work degree be recognized as the equivalent of that of the *scuola media superiore*. This would enable social workers, as social workers, to qualify for civil service positions in the middle range. Social work educators have rejected this proposal because their schools already require a diploma from a *scuola media superiore* as an entrance requirement and because their courses are taught on a university level, usually by university professors. The schools would prefer to be recognized as being somewhere between the diploma of the *scuola media superiore* and the *laurea*, the university degree which corresponds to the degree of Master of Arts in the United States. This would assure the social worker of academic and professional status and be a step toward removing many of the disabilities under which the profession labors at present.

The question will still remain, however, as to whether social work training can be ultimately successful outside the framework of the university. The schools of social work hesitate to affiliate with the universities because of what they consider the university's formal, traditional point of view. There may be good reasons for their reluctance to affiliate, but the fact remains that social workers are cut off from the intellectual stimulation, the resources, and the prestige that can be found only in the university.

One advantage of not having government recognition is that the schools of social work are free to experiment with courses of study. When official recognition is secured, the courses approved by the government must be pretty rigidly maintained, and this may result in an undesirable inflexibility of program, especially in a new field where experiment is essential for future development.

In Italian social work education emphasis is placed upon familiarizing students with public welfare legislation, policies, and procedures and apparently is directed to a great extent toward the preparation of what might be described as a type of public assistance worker. This basis of the program probably stems from preoccupation with material needs.

There is considerable variation in course offerings from school to school. Some schools offer material that is more "practical" than others. Among the usual offerings for the first-year students are such subjects as statistics, elements of civil and criminal law, general psychology, the history of social work, medical information, public welfare, and a foreign language. But there may also be courses in economics, social hygiene, criminology, or social psychology. In the second year there usually are courses in labor legislation, mental hygiene, psychiatry, clinical psychology, urban sociology, ethics of social work, and the theory and methods of social work. Some of these courses might be considered as prerequisites by American schools of social work, but they are necessary in Italy because even university students do not have an adequate background in the field of the social sciences. This failure to develop social studies may be traced back to the suppression of these subjects under fascism.

If there is a third year of study, there

are seminars and specialized field work. In addition to the class work, there are field trips to social agencies and institutions, and, at least in the second year, students are sent to various agencies for periods of from one to several weeks in order to observe procedures. Although educators are aware of the value of field work as it is known in the United States, they are for their own part unable to provide such training because of the difficulty of finding field-work supervisors and practice places for students. The reluctance of agencies to provide opportunities for field work will probably be overcome as the value of social work education comes to be understood. Some schools have partly overcome the lack of field-work placements by setting up small community centers and other service agencies. Under their own auspices, however, the schools are handicapped by the difficulty of finding staff members trained in case-work and supervisory methods.

Classes in social work are usually held in the late afternoon, are small, and seem rather informal, at least in comparison with the usual Italian university class, which emphasizes the method of straight lecturing. The schools attempt to foster the student-teacher relationship, something usually not found in Italian higher education. Since large numbers of the students are self-supporting, class attendance is often irregular, with as many as 50 per cent of the students sometimes absent. Failure to attend class is common in Italian universities, but the schools of social work are trying to insist upon regular attendance if course credit is to be given.

The scarcity of courses in methods of social work practice is due in part to current orientation and in part to the lack of personnel able to teach such

courses. As a result, case work is virtually unknown in Italy. Educators believe that that is fundamental to the training and practice of social workers, but there is no way in which they can implement their desire to emphasize it at present.

After observing American case-work agencies or having read American books on the subject, some Italians concluded that case work was something peculiar to the United States. When we consider the cost of such things as lengthy recording, it can be understood why an Italian social worker might be overwhelmed by long records, small case loads, and the whole complex of services that are found in case work in the United States. Some of those responsible for schools have apparently seen only the "accidental" aspects of case work and concluded that all these services are beyond the reach of Italian social work. And there seems to have been a tendency for some schools to reject the whole of case work. Some have contended that such skills are unnecessary because of the fundamentally sound emotional life of the Italian. Objections of the first kind may be answered by explanation and by trying to interpret the generic aspects of case work. The other objections, happily few in number, tend to ignore reality. Many factors in Italian culture seem to shape a personality somewhat differently from the way it would be shaped in the United States, and these factors would have to be considered in adapting case work to the Italian scene. But Italy has people with marital difficulties and the host of other problems that are found in the United States. The Italians respond to interview situations much as Americans do; and, although there may not be so many or the same kind of pressures in Italian life

as there are in the United States, there is nevertheless a need for psychiatrists in Italy as well as a need for case workers.

Where physical needs are pressing, long-term case-work contacts, but not case-work concepts and principles, are a luxury. To give maximum service to clients, even though only limited resources are available, case-work methods are essential. As yet, nonmaterial needs are not always clearly recognized in Italy, and where they are recognized, the social services lack the workers with skill to deal adequately with them. In fields like child welfare, institutional care, and juvenile delinquency, there is a definite lack of knowledge about personality and behavior. Adequately trained social workers could do much to remedy this situation by demonstration and interpretation. Although the schools of social work have competent faculties from the point of view of university instruction and these professors are said to be among the best in their specialized fields of instruction, they lack staff members with a specifically social work background, and this cannot fail to be reflected in the type of training offered to students.

A thesis requirement in the social work schools has stimulated social research, but not enough is known about research methods, largely because of the predominantly theoretical tradition in social studies. The sound development of research will pay valuable dividends in years to come, but, again, schools are handicapped by a lack of trained personnel.

The publication of more books on social work in Italian would be an invaluable contribution to social work education. At the present time Italy must depend upon foreign authorities

in the field of the social services. Although numbers of British, French, and American books are available, many of the students cannot read them. Some British books have been translated into Italian, and the United States Information Service has translated and made available for free distribution a number of articles on social work from American journals. It also hopes to translate some American books—for example, Charlotte Towle's *Common Human Needs* is being considered.

Italian welfare programs have undoubtedly been helped by offering high-level administrative personnel the opportunity to study American social work. But there is also the need to provide study opportunities for personnel in the lower grades and to help the schools of social work to develop their faculties. Interest would be stimulated, and there would be a more immediate testing and diffusion of techniques and principles, if practitioners had the opportunity to study in the United States. The granting of scholarships to carefully selected persons who might be expected to go into teaching and research as well as into practice would be a way of helping to build a solid foundation for future

Italian social work. The financial burden for such a program cannot be carried by the Italian schools. Funds exist to provide travel grants to the United States if the student is assured of a scholarship and of maintenance while studying here. The average Italian social work student is of high caliber and often speaks, and very often reads and writes, good English. These men and women are aware of the American contribution in the field of social work and want to take advantage of American teaching and experience.

Their value in moral reconstruction and the stabilizing influence of the social services are surely as important as the material reconstruction and rearmament which are liable to be eventually frustrated unless there is the concurrent introduction of the kind of democratic concepts that are characteristic of social work. American schools and agencies can help in this work by encouraging Italian social workers to share their experiences with us and to carry home with them some of the contributions that America has made to the theory and practice of social work.

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WELFARE FARES WELL: A CHRONICLE FROM NORWAY

THOMAS DAWES ELIOT

SOCIAL economists have claimed, since the days of Patten and Devine, that the greater the degree of welfare, the less the need of social work. If social work is conceived as relief for those maladjusted below the level considered normal, Norway is a good proof of the principle. "Social work" is widespread but largely limited to the residuum of defectives—the lame, the halt, and the blind—and to citizen participation in public protective and preventive agencies. The welfare state is no utopia, but it is an actuality in Norway, among a people at least as ruggedly individualistic and liberty-vigilant as our own.

The values of uniform Scandinavian laws are frequently used as leverages for Norwegian legislation: Copenhagen and Stockholm are models for imitation. In some social legislative fields where moral conservatism is strong, Norway is "behind" the sister-states. Yet, in the liberal treatment of nonwedlock children and mothers, Norway's "Castberg Law" (drafted by Kati Anker Møller) was a pioneer. A departmental committee (including Ruth Frøyland Nielsen, of whom more later) is now drafting revisions of this law to expedite adequate protection and support for such cases.

EDUCATION

The teachers and clergy as a whole were among the heroes of the German occupation period, as most Americans remember. They were imprisoned and mistreated wholesale, and they "took it." In nearly every gathering of educa-

tors one learns casually that one or more fellow-guests were in prison. To have been in prison is a badge of honor but seems almost taken for granted. In their refusal to teach Nazi doctrine both the religious conservatives and the educational progressives were united in a patriotic resistance which doubtless provides a backlog of solidarity to this day. (The Teachers' Association is now supporting, and defending in the courts, a teacher discharged for teaching sex education a bit rashly in a small town.) But there is also orderly struggle between old and new in Norway's schools.

In the educational system there is perennial competition between liberals and conservatives, the former more or less strengthened by the party in power since the war but held back by the inertia of the inherited bulk of teaching staff, by finances, and by the state church and its more reactionary satellites.

There is a close hookup between psychologists of the university (with a large student following), the liberals of the School Department, and the Social Welfare Department (which includes the Health Directorate). Professor Åse Grude Skard, who has published widely her modern theories of child-rearing, is on committees of examination and selection for school administrators with Ruth Frøyland Nielsen. Frøken Frøyland Nielsen is the liberal principal of a school for children who have mental or other nonphysical handicaps. She is also on committees of examination for psychology candidates.

Ruth Frøyland Nielsen deserves more than a paragraph to herself. Born in the United States, she wrote her Ph.D. thesis under Piaget in Geneva. She is a leader among those socially minded forces that are attempting (1) to introduce modern insights, attitudes, techniques, and personnel into the teaching-learning processes of the Oslo schools (which are, in general, in advance of the rest of the country); (2) to liberalize the teacher-training program; and (3) to extend the psychological and social services available to disadvantaged or "problem" children. (Her equally well-known brother, the psychiatrist and author, Trygve Braatøy, recently returned from two years at the Menninger Clinic in the United States to the headship of one of the major psychiatric institutes of Norway.) Currently her efforts have been concentrated on a new official brochure descriptive of Norway's schools (which are 90 per cent rural and traditional); on a book about the maturation of co-operative capacities in children; and on the revision of Norway's program of legislation and provision for disadvantaged children, as a member of a joint planning committee of the National Social Welfare Department. Formerly she served as a member of Oslo's Vergeråd, Norway's equivalent for a juvenile court.

Ruth Frøyland Nielsen traces the inspiration of the "moderns" in Norway's school system to Fru Anna Sethne, former principal of the Sagene Skole in Oslo, and to the extensive work of the chief inspector of Oslo schools, Dr. B. Ribskog. Fru Sethne, now retired, is apparently one of those grand "naturals" as a teacher, whose influence comes not from theories, "pedaguese," measurements, tests, statistics, or "administrative" but from personal insight, basic

devotion to children as such, and faith in freedom and intelligence. She inspired a generation of progressive disciples who have not only moved against the stream of tradition but in some respects have turned the tide. Inspector Ribskog is author of a massive study of the Oslo schools which demonstrates that statistics and measurements can be vitalized; it is the basis for current and proposed reforms in administration, in curriculums, and in the indispensable *equipment*—reforms which are held back probably more by the nation's economic shortages than by public opinion. Ribskog is looked upon with some fear by the active leaders of conservative organizations.

JUVENILE COURTS

The *vergeråd* (council of guardians) is not a juvenile court in our sense of that term. In the absence of a sharp "separation of powers," it is difficult to know whether to call it a judicial or an administrative agency; it is both. Those of my readers who happen to know my doctrine of juvenile court functions will understand my concern. But one observes the institution in its Norwegian context and finds it good. It links the resources of police, schools, child protection, health, church, and legal sanction and deals considerably with families as units when their children are in trouble—*any kind of social trouble*.

The laws of child protection in Norway make no sharp distinctions of definition between "neglected," "defective," "dependent," "delinquent," and "truant" children, nor is it necessary to rationalize the legal processes in elaborate terms in order to transfer cases from adult criminal procedures to protective juvenile procedures or family and preventive measures.

Each *fylke* (province) has more than one *vergeråd*, appointed by the county or municipal council. In Oslo, a jurisdiction of some half-million, there are several district boards. Some members are nominated by the parties in roughly proportionate representation and are tagged as such. Some members are chosen "at large." There must be a doctor, and there are often ministers, teachers, and women members. All the members seem to be chosen for relevant experience. They meet more or less regularly to consider cases selected for hearing by the chairman, who is a paid full-time officer, usually a lawyer, and Norway's nearest equivalent to juvenile judge and chief probation officer rolled into one. He is assisted by two experienced (but not "trained") investigators but does a great deal of visiting himself. Some cases are known to, or visited by, other board members. There is an official clerk and (in Oslo) office help.

Careful reading of a month's *vergeråd* records in Oslo shows the usual run of family problems, but resources and procedures for handling them are very different from ours. Cases are referred by police, by neighbors, by schools (regular and special), by foster-homes, and by health and protective agencies. If a mere change of care or aid is necessary, or warning and observation are considered by the chairman sufficient, he exercises his discretion and so orders without calling the case into the office. If change of custody is involved, the case is reviewed and the change recorded at a meeting of the board, but without calling in the parents. If the facts are disputed or if there is a conflict of claims, or if the case is a serious one, the parents (never the children) are called before the board in its judicial capacity.

The "judge" or *formann*, Kåre Gilhus, is an intensely sympathetic but judicious and dignified man of perhaps forty-three, with some previous experience in protective work. He is much interested in learning about the legal and social principles in comparable fields in the United States, but one doubts their applicability or desirability in Norway: the work can develop effectively from its native roots. Indeed, there are aspects of the Norwegian system which might well be adapted for American use, though in the United States we would vest the judicial functions for familial problems in an agency with separate structure and personnel from the treatment agency.

The "courtroom" contains only a handsome long and broad table, with formal armchairs and a central "throne." Herr Gilhus prefers not to use the throne but sits at one end of the table with the committee members (four or five) around him. At one side, at perhaps eight feet, are two chairs for parents, and at the left a small desk for the recording clerk. Cases without a hearing are dealt with first. Then a nonuniformed "bailiff" calls and ushers in the parents, one case at a time, with courtesy. No public audience, no reporters, only *vedkommende* (persons concerned or involved). The situation and the recommendation are stated to the parents, and, if this statement is accepted, it is recorded. If there is question or denial, the evidence is presented and discussed, with comments by the investigator, a middle-aged woman who sits at the other end of the table. The institutions used are all operated (and apparently looked upon by all concerned) as protective schools, so they seem not to be dreaded as such.

There is no distinct category of professional service such as we call probation, though obviously work is done on

the cases by school psychologists, physicians, teachers, occasionally ministers, and by Forsorgsvesen (the child and family care office) and the adoption office in co-operation with the *vergeråd* itself. Oslo's nearest approach to family case work is perhaps to be found in Forsorgsvesen, the secretary of which was formerly secretary of the surburan *vergeråd* of Aker, now merged in greater Oslo.

ALCOHOLISM

Gilhus considers alcoholism and feeble-mindedness to be leading causes of family neglect and breakdown, and *vergeråd* records seem to confirm his opinion. So does the experience of the Sobriety Board (Edrueilighets Nemnden, Fru Dr. Tove Mohr, chairman), which, meeting twice weekly, has authority to place drunkards on probation or to segregate them for cure and to order family support in the interval. The *vergeråd* co-operates with Edrueilighets Nemnden; both co-operate with Alcoholics Anonymous; neither's experience is consulted by the divorce court, which attempts no case work and handles merely end results.

An evening with Alcoholics Anonymous came as an unexpected invitation to meet "friends" at the handsome suburban home of Dr. Gordon Johnsen, psychiatrist of Diakones Sykehus. He serves as their guide and sponsor and is well known for his integration of liberal orthodoxy with medical treatment. (He is also a leader of Kristen Hjelp, a medicoreligious committee which has staged lecture series in family life education and has published these in a brochure series which has a limited noncommercial circulation.) His known interest in alcoholism leads to referrals of patients for whom religious motivation seems to be effective. The proceedings were friend-

ly and informal. The personnel were drawn from many class levels. Dr. Johnsen's role seemed more ministerial than medical, and he and a vigorous young clergyman did most of the talking. The occasion had an inspiring quality, but as a movement A.A. is still minimal.

Hearings of the Sobriety Board are seldom plenary. Plaintiffs or defendants (usually wives and husbands, respectively) wait together and are admitted one by one for individual interviews. The inquiries seemed courteous, friendly, objective, individualized, and therapeutic rather than threatening in attitude, but not deep, systematic, or thoroughgoing. The *kuratorer*, or case workers, of whom there are five, are untrained but chosen for adaptability to the work and assigned to cases considered congenial to their respective personal types. A procedure frequently used was an abstinence pledge sanctioned by a consent to be placed in one of many public *kurhus* (liquor-cure sanatoriums) without objection if the pledge be broken. City funds are available for family relief of cases committed for "cure." Cases are often referred to and by physicians.

The National Temperance Education Council has a subsidy from the profits of Vinmonopoliet. Other agencies do not speak too encouragingly of the success of any of these agencies as solutions of this perennial problem. In certain cities improved living standards and housing and propaganda are said to have produced gains over the prewar conditions, but drunkenness is occasionally noticeable.

Alcoholism is a big problem, despite state monopoly of wine and spirits. But the laws, procedure, spirit, and program for treatment of alcoholics are far ahead of most American communities, despite relatively little scientific research, classi-

fication, or professionally trained personnel.

SETTLEMENT WORK IN NORWAY

The settlements would be hardly noticeable, except for the energetic and bouyant spirit of Nanna Michelet of Studenter Settlementet (called "Fossgården" for short). Years ago she had a year in the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy—one of the few in Norway with any American social work experience. Like Lea Taylor of Chicago Commons, her father was a minister, and the settlement is religious in motivation and emphasis. It is located in two old tenement houses and includes a few clubrooms and students' quarters and a mothers' health station. Its services are largely those of unprogrammed groups of old people and children, and it does not seem to reach adequately, with group work, the crowded and badly housed working population of the areas which surround it. Contacts are maintained with two or three settlements in other cities by means of a Norwegian Settlement League in the name of which Frøken Michelet calls an annual conference.

The Fossgården personnel are volunteers, largely from the theological schools, a few from other faculties, but seldom from sociology. (In Norway sociologists are following the postwar American vogue of ignoring welfare work and concentrating on statistical method and social psychology, with a bit of collaboration in community surveys, supposed to relate to the replanning of the "boom town" at Mo-i-Rana, the new steel center on the north coast.)

Since Studenter Settlementet is for university students only, Ungdoms Gård, in another Oslo area, utilizes non-

student volunteers and serves largely children.

SOCIAL WORK (AS SUCH)

Few people in Norway know what one is talking about when social case work is mentioned. Of these, there are some who merely know that it is something they ought to have. A few Norwegian students have attended the schools of social work in Stockholm, Göteborg, and Copenhagen, still fewer those in America; but the climate of social service is so different that transplanting and propagating have not developed rapidly. The trained workers are not in jobs which permit them to demand more trained workers, and there is no pressure to that end.

Positions which involve case interviewing, reporting and/or therapeutic service are to be found, as follows: *kuratorer* in one mothers' health center (for possible abortion cases), hospitals, psychiatric clinic, child psychology division, and prisoners' aid or parole; *inspektører* in the child and family relief office (Forsorgsvesen), *vergeråd*, divorce court (no effort to do case work), and sobriety board; *forstander* in Forsorgsvesen and *utsattskontoret*; workers of the Vernelag (protective league). The last named, operated for many years by the Rummelhoff, has the best case records discovered, and Dr. Ivan Rummelhoff's year in the United States stocked his shelves with the best social work literature of that period. But the relatively advanced ideas in his pamphlets seem to have continued largely unnoticed.

There are now two schools of social work in Oslo. One, only two years old, is associated largely with government and municipal services. The other, headed by Frøken Dakky Kjær, ostensibly has a broader scope. Both curriculums are

very limited as compared with those of American professional schools and have not provided supervised field work.

The municipal school has handsome headquarters. Its curriculum leans toward the administrative law of the social services. Dakky Kjær's school has no physical habitation; it finds and uses rooms as needed. It has offered courses for workers in private social agencies. Possibly it could have expanded to fill the needs of the expanding public services, but it is also possible that the underlying philosophy of its policies and leaders has not been congenial to those of the new municipal school, which is naturally influenced by labor's ideology and bureaucracy's needs. Dr. Liv Kluge, a socialist and lecturer of the municipal school, had the school library's book on case work at home but did not recall its name or author. However, she was enrolled in the case-work seminar set up under United States instruction in Holland this last summer. Both Kluge and Kjær are able and devoted teachers.

One may say that, whereas United States schools have made training a prerequisite for job experience, the Norwegian schools have reversed this. They give preference to candidates for admission who have already been on the job as untrained social workers—possibly given leave of absence for the course.

Both schools talk of introducing family welfare and case work as regular courses; Dakky Kjær's curriculum already includes a few lectures by a candidate in sociology. Though she claimed no field-work training, I found one of her students placed as a volunteer in Oslo's Vernelag.

There is a tiny group called *kuratorforeningen*, the possible beginning of a professional organization. But its lead-

er, Fru Giæver (trained at Stockholm but without case-work courses), indicates that it is hardly more than a committee for occasional discussion, with no pressure interest. The twenty-two members all have some schooling from Stockholm or from the Kjær courses, but all are hospital workers. They would prefer to organize by specialties, separate from those working in other problem areas.

There are two organizations for discussion of general philanthropic and social welfare interests, known as Norsk Forening for Sosialt Arbeid (with a magazine *Sosialt Arbeid* largely on institutional charities) and Norsk Forening for Samfunnsforskning.

The term *sosialt arbeid* (social work) is recognized as a general category, or as a borrowed phrase, but not as a profession or as an integrated or defined set of agencies. It is used to include settlements and general philanthropic endeavors rather than the public services, which carry neither the taint nor the credit of our ambivalent concept of charity.

It would be oversimplification to say that the noticeable line between the religious and nonreligious aspects of "welfare" is the same as the line between public and private welfare, but there is some correlation so long as Arbeider Parti dominates the local and national governments. Still, one recognizes that in Norway the church is also part of the public administration.

There are a great many private charitable enterprises, many under religious control or motivation, in the traditional fields of custodial care for the deaf, blind, crippled, orphaned, and nonwedlock mothers and children. Each of these groups has its own league. Certain national bodies deserve special note,

however, because of their dynamic programs.

The Red Cross has gone in heavily for hospitals, ambulances, layettes for the poor, etc.

There are dozens of "day homes" and day nurseries throughout the towns of Norway, which are used by some working mothers. The Housemothers League (outgrowth of Hjemmenes Vel, which boasts of being the oldest women's organization in Europe) has hundreds of locals and an active program of kindergartens, with municipal subsidies for helping many working-class families. But the shortage of this service is still acute; in Oslo, for eight thousand places said to be needed, four hundred places are provided. The *park-tante* system (preschool groups in the parks) is widely used, but the caretakers are merely certified as responsible; they are untrained pedagogically. They serve children only from two to four years of age and for limited hours, hardly useful to working mothers, and not at all for children of four to seven (the school age in Norway). Baby-sitters are registered, their fees and working conditions are standardized, and one reaches them through a communal office. Housemother substitutes, for periods of family emergency, are communally provided. House mothers' vacations are fostered by certain communes and by the Folke Hjelp organizations.

The Norwegian Women's Health Association, with 200,000 members and twelve hundred locals, has a far-reaching network of local projects in the care and prevention of endemic diseases. It owns and operates (with state and municipal subsidies) some five hundred mothers' health centers for pregnancy, infancy, and preschool health but (at least officially) not for contraceptive advice. The

latter may be offered if the local branch so determines, but none has done so. The present national officers are obviously playing safe after a controversial crisis. The conservatives fear that preventives for the unmarried and abortions will come next. (The Nazis closed the independent birth-control clinic in Oslo and destroyed its records, falsely accusing it of abortion practice. It is again open and has support from the municipality and the health insurance program.)

A national organization against tuberculosis has strong support, but in results it has not progressed so far as Denmark. But, without benefit of privately organized propaganda, Norwegian health authorities have (except for seamen and the Norwegian Brigade in Germany) practically abolished venereal diseases; Oslo can boast the lowest rate in the world.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CO-OPERATION

The use of subsidies for services organized and partly financed by private effort is a characteristic pattern. The church, being established, is already in a sense in politics, but Lutheranism leaves unto Caesar that which is Caesar's. Church influence is largely defensive. Organizations other than the church are not big enough to dominate government policy.

Conservatives are irritated by the self-defeating administrative stupidities of minor officials in housing, imports, etc. There is a bureaucracy; but no such sharp cleavage between public and private agencies as is felt in the United States, nor is there reciprocal suspicion. The bureaucracy is kept fairly decentralized and democratic by continually enlisting volunteer citizens in committee groups; it is quite as dependent upon them as vice versa. There is a

"we"-feeling among all concerned. Arbeider Parti organizations may get some plums, but the government also subsidizes some conservative private agencies.

This leads one to the "pay-off" of social legislation. With broadly based protection against accident, illness, and unemployment, and a system of family aids in the form of rent allowances, tax exemptions, price discounts, children's rations, dental care, the Oslo "school breakfast," free textbooks, free schools,¹ loans to newlyweds to launch house-keeping, and aids to house mothers—all considered as democratically and self-respectingly provided—there is little need for a family relief service.

People do not complain that these services are pauperizing, because the taxes are so high that they are very much aware of paying for the services as they go—but under mass production at a lower rate than "private initiative" would expect for them. But by the same token it is silly to imagine that public

provision of and for the essentials of family living undermines individualism, independence, or civil liberty. Possibly there is even an inverse ratio, in cultures, between economic laissez faire and personal liberty.

To Norwegians the welfare state is neither a bogey nor anything for which they apologize. They do not feel on the defensive about it, nor do their conservatives use it as a derogatory word. It is *their* own welfare, not that provided for some disadvantaged, humiliated minorities. The basic questions of political economy have to do, not with methods, but with resources: economic freedom or welfare? And how much welfare can we afford? Recovery or refrigerators? Automobiles or apartments? Children or cocktails? Butter or guns? In the United States we can afford them all, and we quarrel about how to waste them least stupidly. In Norway they have so little natural wealth that their rising planes of living put strains upon both private and public ingenuity. Their national economy must be economical, but welfare fares well.

NORTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY
EVANSTON, ILLINOIS

¹ There is no supervised public playground system, yet all Norway plays in all outdoors, and in Oslo no child need go more than three blocks to find a small park with at least a sandbox.

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NOTES AND COMMENT BY THE EDITOR

LOUIS BRAILLE, A PIONEER IN SOCIAL WELFARE

This is the centenary of the death of Louis Braille (1809-52), whose name has been given to the wonderful system which makes it possible for the blind to read. Louis Braille was born at Coupvray—twenty-three miles from Paris—and his name is commemorated there in Braille Square. The son of a saddler, Louis Braille became blind as a result of a childhood accident while playing with his father's tools and was sightless before he was four years old. He had been sent to the Paris School for the Blind when he was three years old, and "within a year he was singled out as a superior student and a boy of character." We are told that this French school "led all its imitators in the scope of its curriculum."¹ Louis Braille died of tuberculosis at the early age of forty-three and was buried in the Coupvray cemetery. He had taught in the Paris School for the Blind, and there his bust stands as a memorial: "The true education of the blind began with Braille as the world of letters opened up for them through their finger tips."²

AN INSTITUTE OF WAR AND PEACE

Columbia University has announced that it has established an Institute of War and Peace Studies to examine the impact of international tensions and wars on American society. It will conduct a series of re-

search projects on the causes of war and on less costly ways of protecting ourselves and our values. The new Institute, of which Dr. William T. R. Fox is to be director, will have four special consultants.

The *New York Times* has reported that the new Columbia Institute will avoid "simplistic" explanation of the causes of war and seek instead to study the functions of war as "a method of protecting the values considered even more precious than the values it places in jeopardy."

The following are listed as examples of the areas the research would cover:

1. A study of all the international relations that lie between total war and total peace. "Between the secure peace which seems now so remote and the absolute war which seems to threaten the very values which alone would justify our embarking upon it," he declared, "lies much unfamiliar terrain."
2. A study of the way in which the use of force in war shapes and is shaped by the formulation of war aims.
3. A study of the measures that would lessen the impact of preparedness programs upon our way of life.
4. A study of the methods evolved in recent years to coordinate military, diplomatic and domestic policy, which have led in the last decade to "drastic modification" of governmental procedures.
5. A study of the way in which new advances in science and technology, including the social sciences, are influencing our policy making and of ways to make them still more useful.

The Institute will "study war as a tragic social phenomenon—its origins, its conduct, its impact and particularly its disastrous consequences upon man's spiritual, intellectual and material progress."

The operations of the new Columbia Institute will be supervised by an administrative committee consisting of Dr. Grayson

¹ For an excellent account of Braille's work see *Journey into Light: The Story of the Education of the Blind* by Ishbel Ross (New York, 1951). Valentine Haüy (1745-1822) had preceded Louis Braille in discovery of the use that could be made of embossed type and was called the "originator of relief printing for the blind." There is also an interesting account of the work of Haüy in the Ross book.

² Ross, *op. cit.*

Kirk, vice-president and acting head of Columbia; Dr. John A. Krout, dean of the Graduate Faculties; Dr. Schuyler C. Wallace, director of the School of International Affairs; Dr. James W. Angell, executive officer of the Economics Department; and Dr. John H. Wuorinen, executive officer of the History Department.

A NEW HISTORY OF MAN

A promised "History of Mankind," on a vast scale, to be sponsored by UNESCO, has aroused much interest among scholars. The new history will be prepared by an international board of scholars from many countries and will open interesting vistas in the long search for knowledge. "The proposed history represents an attempt to see humanity as a whole, to study the contribution each culture has made to the sweep of civilization down the centuries, to learn more about the interrelationships of peoples and the development of their institutions and to understand the place of the individual in his social environment."

It is understood that the great history is to be directed by a commission of twelve scholars from the different countries of the world. The *New York Times* explains that "no historians of the Soviet bloc have joined this venture and, although places have been set aside for them, it is not likely that any will. There is no place here for ideological slant or racial bias. For the goal of this world history and its corollary works is to present the story of man without passion or prejudice, and to present it whole."

The history will be written in six volumes, each by a different author, covering the story of the ages of man from prehistoric and ancient times to the sixth decade of the twentieth century. The key to the project is that it is conceived in terms of all mankind rather than from the standpoint of any given nation, clan or culture. It is designed less to take the bias out of history than to present history in such a way that there can be no place for bias. Its theme in the broadest sense is the theme of "one world," and its substance the ceaseless inter-

play of human forces making for the diversity and unity in the development of man.

Later a two-volume abridgment will be made available for college and university use throughout the world and also a one-volume summary for popular distribution. The plan also calls for a quarterly "Journal of World History," providing opportunity for publication of material to be incorporated in the main work as well as for running critical comment on its plan and its contents.

INTERNATIONAL RELIEF AND THE REFUGEES

A Washington newsletter published by the Friends Committee on National Legislation lists the sums that Congress has appropriated in the Mutual Security Act for expenditures on relief and refugees through the UN or other international agencies as follows: \$50 million for the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East; \$50 million for refugees going to Israel; \$50 million for relief in Korea; \$10 million for encouraging migration chiefly to countries besides the United States; and \$5¼ million for the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund for the calendar year 1951.

For this special Children's Fund the Senate Appropriations Committee reported favorably on an appropriation of \$12 million for 1952, but we understand that final action has not been taken in either the House or the Senate. Further, the Quaker newsletter reports that the task of resettling refugees is not nearly finished according to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, who warned the General Assembly in Paris last November that the world refugee problem demands immediate attention, in spite of the fact that more than a million persons had been resettled by the International Refugee Organization. The committee also does well to call attention to the fact that it is the belief of the Friends Committee on National Legislation that the United States needs to be more willing to receive refugees into the United States.

THE ARAB REFUGEES

The organization now caring for the homeless Arab population is known as the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East. In a report to the Assembly, \$250,000,000 was said to be necessary to develop a self-sufficient relief project for Arab refugees by July, 1954. Although \$66,000,000 had been spent since 1948 on Arab refugees, the Arab population was "virtually destitute" as of today, a condition said in the report to be largely due to the agency's inadequate funds, which had compelled it to resort to more costly short-range building projects, such as road construction and forestry programs. The agency had failed, because of such difficulties as inadequate funds, rising food prices, a flour shortage, poor harvests, and other problems, to reintegrate the Arab refugee into the economy.

An \$800,000,000 assistance program would involve a five-year plan to set up development projects to harness the water and power of the Jordan River for Jordan and Israel and to utilize the waterways of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers for Iraq and Syria and the Litani River for Lebanon.

The account of the situation in the *New York Times*, as we go to press, points out that, in underscoring resettlement as the solution for the refugee problem, it is believed that Israel would be unable to reabsorb the displaced population, since that country in less than four years has doubled its population by immigration.

The proposal provides, however, that the Israel Government do its part in the assistance program by paying compensation for abandoned Arab lands. The Arab states, occupying 1,200,000 square miles of land, would in turn, be called on to designate underpopulated cultivable land to be settled by Arab families.

In this connection, the memorandum to the United Nations emphasized that at least three of the Arab states urgently required additional population, which they must get through immigration. Iraq alone, it was estimated, could absorb 750,000 refugees by reclamation of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley.

A report submitted by nineteen church and civic leaders also called on both Israel and the surrounding Arab states to end their long-standing disputes by agreeing to a peace settlement. . . .

Behind the recent proposals to the United Nations for the "reintegration" of Palestine Arab refugees in the Middle East is the hope that after three years of argument and indecision the refugees finally can be resettled in the Arab countries surrounding Israel.

For the first time since the Palestine War in 1948, United Nations officials have reason to believe that Israel, the Arab states and the refugees themselves would be willing to consider a resettlement project outside the framework of a general peace agreement.

Hitherto the problem has defied solution because Israel would not take back the refugees, the Arab states would not accept them as permanent residents and the great majority of the refugees would not consider going anywhere but back to their homes in Palestine.

Recent consultations with the Arab governments "have provided the outline of a new formula of cooperation and constructive action," the Director and Advisory Commission of the United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East reported to the General Assembly.

Judging by the number of job applications now being received from the refugees, United Nations relief officials believe that if resettlement were started, large numbers would grasp the opportunity for work and homes.

It is the proposal of the Palestine relief agency, as already reported from Paris, that the United Nations—principally the United States, Britain and France—should contribute \$250,000,000 for relief and reintegration during the three years that started July 1, 1951.

The object of the three-year program would be to provide homes and jobs, particularly farmsteads, to taper off the relief program and make the Palestinians "economic assets" of the countries where they have taken refuge.

It is the assumption of the relief agency that the resettlement program would be accompanied by large-scale development in the host countries; that this development would make room for the refugees and that an economic renaissance would take place in a potentially rich area of the world that so far has lacked capital to exploit its richness.

Editorially, the *New York Times* suggests that the Arab refugees, miserable and bitter and desperate as they are, want to return to their ancestral Palestine and to the homes and farms from which they fled. For their part, the Arab Governments are so driven by hatred and fear of Israel that they have deliberately and callously used these poor people as instruments of politics. Up to the present it is not money and not brilliant plans for resettlement and rehabilitation that have been lacking; it is the Arab will to face the facts and make the best of a decisive setback. However, the efforts to solve the problem must go on. . . . It would be well for all Americans to recognize their responsibility for the existence of this terrible problem—875,000 desperate and wretched human beings uprooted for causes beyond their initiative or control.

If this dangerous problem is ever to be solved, the United States must lead the way in proving to the Arab world that the West wants to help all the people of the Middle East, whatever their race or religion.

The new program would allocate \$300,000,000 to resettle the remaining 876,000 homeless Arabs in surrounding countries and would devote the remaining \$500,000,000 to development of the natural resources of the Arab states that would absorb the refugees.

Details of the proposed project, set forth in a 117-page report on the *Arab Refugee Problem: How It Can Be Solved*, were sent to Secretary-General Trygve Lie in Paris and to delegates who were attending the overseas sessions of the sixth General Assembly.

WOMEN AND THE AMENDMENTS TO THE SOCIAL SECURITY ACT

An important statement issued by the United States Women's Bureau is as follows:

Women, in general, have greater rights and larger benefits under the amended Federal social security law. This applies to wives, mothers, and widows, as well as to the woman worker who is providing for the family. For instance, the new law recognizes, and meets to a fuller extent than the original act, the economic needs of the dependent woman with children. Heretofore, in no case was the wife of a retired and insured worker entitled to monthly insurance

payments until she reached age 65. Now, if she has in her care their minor child who is entitled to insurance benefits, she too gets monthly payments, regardless of her age. These payments continue until the child reaches 18 years.

Under the old law, a mother caring for the minor children of her deceased divorced husband was not entitled to monthly insurance payments in her own right. Now, if she has in her care either their natural child, or legally adopted child entitled to insurance payments, and she has not remarried, she too will get monthly payments. However, she must have been receiving at least half her support from the insured divorced husband (pursuant to agreement or court order) at the time of his death. Through this provision, the revised law gives recognition to the fact that a divorced wife, largely supported by her former husband's earnings, is in as great a need of survivors' benefits after his death as is the wife in cases where the marital relationship has not been dissolved.

The provision in the new law granting wage credits for active service in World War II has brought new benefits to many women. In addition to providing social security wage credits for the women who actually served in the armed forces, it has enabled many widows and mothers of service men to qualify for survivors' benefits. Survivors of such insured workers, with minor children, may now receive insurance payments even though they get compensation or pensions under veterans' legislation. When these World War II credits were added to the deceased husband's or son's civilian wage record in work covered by social security, many dependent women were immediately eligible for social security benefit payments.

A NEW FEDERAL HEALTH COMMISSION

On December 29, 1951, a new commission, the Commission on the Health Needs of the Nation, was appointed by the President and asked to "determine within a year the nation's total health requirements and to recommend ways for meeting them in both the immediate and the distant future." The President said that the new commission of fifteen members was created because the present world crisis made it particularly important that "we should seek to limit the drain upon our strength through illness and death."

The President appointed as chairman of the new commission Dr. Paul B. Magnuson, former medical director of the Veterans Administration, and chose fourteen representatives of the medical profession, the American Medical Association, education and research institutions, and farm, labor, and consumer organizations to co-operate in reports and recommendations.

The *New York Times* suggests that the President seemed to many observers to be making a "new approach to safeguarding the country's health, which he has sought to accomplish in part by proposing a system of compulsory health insurance."

The *Times* said editorially that the President had taken "what should be a forward step toward breaking the deadlock that has existed on constructive action for a positive health program." The new commission, according to the President, would "make a critical study of our total health requirements, both immediate and long-term, and [would] recommend courses of action to meet these needs."

The *Times* also suggests that "such a study should be helpful in ending the confusion in the minds of the public which has existed since the President made his first proposals for a national health insurance system." The opposition to these proposals from some groups has been so strong that we have lost sight of other extremely important problems. The President lists these as: "(1) insuring an adequate supply of physicians, dentists, nurses, and allied personnel; (2) developing local public health units; (3) making more hospital beds available where they are needed; (4) stepping up the tempo of fundamental research in medicine; (5) meeting the needs of the chronically ill and aged; and (6) providing diagnostic, rehabilitative and other medical services to all income groups regardless of financial ability."

The members of the new commission, in addition to Dr. Magnuson, are as follows: Dean A. Clark, M.D., general director of the Massachusetts General Hospital, Boston; Joseph C. Hinsey, Ph.D., dean of the Cornell University Medical College, New

York; Gunnar Gundersen, M.D., a trustee of the American Medical Association, La Crosse, Wisconsin; Russell V. Lee, M.D., associate clinical professor of medicine, Stanford University School of Medicine, San Francisco; Evarts A. Graham, M.D., surgeon, St. Louis, Missouri; Marion W. Sheahan, R.N., director of the National Committee for the Improvement of Nursing Services, New York; Ernest G. Sloman, D.D.S., president-elect of the American Association of Dental Schools, San Francisco; Walter P. Reuther, president of the United Automobile Workers, CIO, Detroit; A. J. Hayes, president of the International Association of Machinists, Washington, D.C.; Clarence Poe, president and editor of the *Progressive Farmer*, Raleigh, North Carolina; Charles S. Johnson, president of Fisk University, Nashville; Lowell J. Reed, Ph.D., vice-president of the Johns Hopkins University and Hospital, Baltimore; Chester I. Barnard, president of the Rockefeller Foundation, New York; and Elizabeth S. Magee, general secretary of the National Consumers League, Cleveland.

It was however somewhat surprising to find the *Times* reporting that Dr. Magnuson said that he opposed any compulsory national health program such as the President had recommended. The commission, he said, consists of persons of "good will and different opinions." He predicted that they "ought to come up with something the country will take." "I think there is considerable necessity for this sort of thing," Dr. Magnuson said of the inquiry, and he added, opposing any compulsory national health program, "I don't like the word compulsory. You can't make people go to doctors or doctors go to people."

A GRANT TO AID GRADUATE WORK IN SOUTHERN UNIVERSITIES

The president of the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching announced at the close of the last year that the development of "high quality graduate and research programs" in key institutions

in the South as pacesetters for strengthening graduate work in that area will be aided by a five-year program totaling \$1,200,000. The program will apply to the "basic fields of the arts and sciences and the social sciences" and is to be carried out through "a few of the influential and strategically located Southern universities in which high standards are known to prevail."

The institutions selected for assistance are Duke University and the University of North Carolina; Emory, in Georgia; Tulane, in Louisiana; and Vanderbilt, in Tennessee. The four private institutions are now engaged in endowment-fund campaigns which should enable them to take over at the end of the five-year period the financing of their augmented graduate work.

Decision to develop this program followed a study by Dr. Carmichael, president of the Foundation, and Robert M. Lester, the Foundation's secretary. Among the "basic considerations" developed were:

1. That the location of important government installations in several Southern states has created in this area a need for "highly trained personnel in a variety of scientific and technological fields [who] will give great impetus to the developing science and technology of the region."

2. The growing importance of the Board for Southern Regional Education which was established in 1949 under a compact entered into by the legislatures of fourteen states. This Board provides liaison service between the agencies requiring research and the universities which train the scientists.

3. The "unprecedented interest in technological research" on the part of Southern industry which calls for more and more highly trained men. This interest is evidenced by the development, for example, of the Southern Research Institute which has a large annual budget for sponsored research.

4. The situation among the colleges and universities of the region, which show a rapid growth in student population and in program but which are "just now beginning to make substantial progress" in the field of graduate education.

"What seems to be most needed in the next few years is the development of high quality

graduate and research programs in a few institutions which will set the pace and point the way to be followed by the less developed universities as these latter acquire increased resources," Dr. Carmichael said.

"As the result of extended meetings with the presidents and graduate deans of the leading universities in the Southern region, it was unanimously concluded that the critical problem is one of personnel, both in the graduate student body and in the staff. Ability to attract the ablest students in the region and to attract and hold the ablest faculty appears to be the strategic need. . . . While salary scales in these institutions have been greatly improved since 1945, they do not yet compare favorably with those in other sections. . . .

"A sum sufficient to supplement the salaries, not of all the faculty but of key professorships, will accomplish two purposes. First, it will solve the immediate problem of holding men who are being sought by other institutions and place the institutions in a competitive position when filling vacancies in these key posts; second, it will set a pattern for compensation not only in these institutions but in other universities in the region. Thus the level of the entire program of higher education should be raised.

"Similarly, a part of the support to be made available to the participating universities will be applied to increasing stipends to selected graduate students who might otherwise be attracted by the currently higher level of compensation in other parts of the country."

The funds for this operation have been made available to the Carnegie Foundation by the Carnegie Corporation of New York which previously supported a five-year program by the Foundation among Southern colleges and universities at the under-graduate level. To that operation, which is now in its final year, the Corporation contributed \$900,000, and the co-operating institutions made available an additional \$300,000.

REHABILITATION FOR VETERANS

American veterans, disabled in military service anywhere in the world after fighting started in Korea, are now eligible under a new law for vocational training on the same basis as World War II veterans. Previously, the rehabilitation training had been limited to Korean veterans who needed it and

whose service-connected disabilities had resulted from armed conflict or extra-hazardous service outside of combat. This limitation is said to have had the effect of barring hundreds of veterans—disabled while serving in the United States or in noncombat zones elsewhere—from the federally sponsored training program. Those entitled, in the past, were mainly veterans injured or disabled in Korea itself. The new act, known as Public Law 170 (82d Congress), “lifts the bar” by eliminating the “armed conflict” and “extra-hazardous” requirements. Under the law, training may be extended to those veterans, disabled in any part of the world after June 27, 1950, who meet essentially the same requirements as their fellow-veterans of World War II: a discharge under other-than-dishonorable conditions, a compensable service-connected disability, and a need for training to overcome the handicap of the disability.

GOVERNMENT LIFE INSURANCE FOR VETERANS

An increasingly large number of questions are said to be pouring into the Veterans Administration concerning the new government life insurance provided by Congress for veterans who served in the U.S. Armed Forces anywhere in the world since the Korean campaign started on June 27, 1950. The Veterans Administration has prepared a useful series of articles on this subject which are summarized here:

Two new types of low-cost Government life insurance are available to these eligible veterans of the U.S. Armed Forces.

The first of these two types is a non-convertible five-year level premium term policy that may be renewed every five years at the premium rate for the then-attained age.

The second type is a special form of National Service Life Insurance, on either term or permanent plan, that may be issued to disabled veterans whose disabilities have been found to be service-connected.

First, dealing only with the five-year level premium term plan: To qualify for the five-year level premium term policy (under Section

621 of the NSLI Act), veterans must have been ordered to active duty for 31 days or more; they must have served since June 27, 1950, and they must have been released from active service.

These veterans are eligible, without physical examination, for a five-year level premium term policy in amount ranging from \$1,000 to \$10,000, less any other Government life insurance in force at the time of application. But they must apply in writing to Veterans Administration, Washington 25, D.C., within 120 days after their release or separation from active service and pay the required first premium. The premium rates for most ages under this policy are the lowest of any Government life insurance yet authorized by the Congress. While this policy may be renewed every five years at the premium rate for the then-attained age, it is not convertible to any other plan of Government life insurance, nor will it earn dividends. And, because it is a term policy running for only five years, it does not have any loan value, cash surrender value, or extended insurance value. It merely provides life insurance coverage while premiums are being paid for the five-year period.

A veteran taking out this type of policy may name any person or persons, firm or corporation, or his estate as the beneficiary or beneficiaries to whom payments shall be made in event of his death while the policy is in force under premium-paying conditions.

Death payments made to the beneficiary or beneficiaries are exempt from taxation, but the exemption does not extend to any property bought with this money. These payments also are fully exempt from claims of creditors against the insured veteran or his beneficiary or beneficiaries, but this exemption does not apply against the United States.

Veterans who plan to apply for this insurance may do so immediately following separation or release from active service, but they must meet requirements within 120 days after separation or release.¹

Second, a special type of Government life insurance is available to veterans of the U.S. Armed Forces who were disabled in active military service anywhere in the world since June 27, 1950, the start of the Korean Campaign.

¹ For further information, veterans must contact their nearest VA office immediately after separation or release.

These veterans must meet two requirements (under Section 620 of the National Service Life Insurance Act).

1. They must have been released or separated from active service on or after April 25, 1951, under other than dishonorable conditions; and,

2. They must be found by Veterans Administration to be suffering from a service-connected disability or disabilities for which VA compensation would be payable, if 10 percent or more in degree. Further, they must *not* be suffering from a nonservice-connected disability or disabilities that make them uninsurable.

These veterans must apply for the special NSLI to Veterans Administration within one year from the date that VA finds their disability or disabilities to be service-connected.²

If the necessary requirements are met, totally disabled veterans may apply for a waiver of premium at the time they file application for the insurance. However, all such applicants should include the required premium with their applications and continue to pay this premium on time until they are notified by VA that waiver has been granted. Premiums paid under waiver will be refunded.

This special insurance for the disabled is a form of National Life Insurance, and several types of policies are available—term, ordinary life, 20-pay life, 30-pay life, and endowments. For the totally disabled, no endowment plans may be issued; however, all others may be issued.

The amount of any policy may range from \$1,000 to \$10,000, less any other Government life insurance in force at the time of application.

These policies, in general, are the same as regular NSLI policies, except that the premium rates are on a different basis and the policies do not earn dividends. There are other differences, but most of the conditions are the same.

Although eligible disabled veterans must apply for this special insurance one year from the date that VA finds their disabilities to be service-connected, they may make application immediately after separation or release from active service and thus set the machinery in motion

for a ruling on the service-connection of their disability or disabilities.³

Recently-discharged veterans who left active military service with a Government term policy in force under waiver of premiums have only 120 days from the date of their separation or release to begin paying the premium again to Veterans Administration.

Otherwise, they run the risk of not having any Government life insurance in force after the 120-day post-service period has expired.

Here, a term policy is one that runs for a specified number of years and then must be renewed or converted while under premium-paying conditions in order to keep the insurance in force.

In the cases to be explained the policy could be a five-year or an eight-year National Service Life insurance term policy, or it could be a five-year U.S. Government Life Insurance term policy.

The phrase, "under waiver of premiums," applies here either to a term NSLI or to a term USGLI policy that the person wanted to keep in force while he was in service without paying premiums and for which he applied and was granted a waiver (under Section 622 of the NSLI Act).

This waiver ordinarily continues for the duration of the person's active service, plus 120 days after separation or release.⁴ . . .

Even though this premium may be paid within the first few days of the 120-day period, it will not be applied on the policy that is under waiver until the first premium falls due after

³ Another group of persons may be eligible for this special NSLI for the disabled. This group includes: (1) persons provisionally accepted on or after June 27, 1950, for military service who suffer a disability while en route under orders to a place for final acceptance or for entry upon active duty, and (2) draftees who, on or after June 27, 1950, suffer a disability while en route under orders from their draft boards to a designated induction station.

These two groups must apply for the special insurance within one year from the date they suffered their disability or disabilities.

For further information, veterans should contact their nearest VA office immediately after separation or release from active service.

⁴ If this person wants to keep the policy in force after the 120-day post-service period, he should pay the required premiums to Veterans Administration, Washington 25, D.C., within the 120-day period.

² Applications, with medical examinations and the required premium, should be mailed to Veterans Administration, Washington 25, D.C.

the 120-day period following the person's separation or release from active service.

For that reason, the Veterans Administration urges these veterans to make their first premium payment as soon after separation or release as possible and thus guard against their policies lapsing after the 120 days have passed.

Two factors affect those whose term NSLI or USGLI policies expired while they were in service:

1. For those whose period of term insurance expired while they were in active service and while the policies were under waiver of premiums, the law provides for automatic renewal of their insurance for another five-year period, with premiums waived for the remainder of their active service, plus 120 days thereafter. These veterans will be required to pay a higher premium on their automatically renewed term policies within 120 days of their separation or release than they paid for the policies that expired while they were in service.

2. For those who did not apply for a waiver on their term insurance and whose policies expired while they were in active service after April 25, 1951, the law grants them the right to apply for new insurance in the same amount and of the same type as the expired policies. These veterans must apply to VA within 120 days of their discharge and submit evidence of good health through a physical examination. They also must pay the required premium. These applications should be submitted to Veterans Administration, Washington 25, D.C.⁵

Recently-discharged veterans who were granted a waiver of only part of their premiums on their permanent plans of Government life insurance while they were in active service must act immediately after their release or separation to keep this insurance in force under full premium-paying conditions. If the veterans surrendered their permanent plans of Government life insurance for their cash value on or after April 25, 1951, while they were in active service so as to take advantage of the free indemnity protection, they must act within 120 days of their release or separation to reinstate their policies or to apply for new permanent plan insurance.

Here, permanent plans of Government life insurance mean any of the permanent plans issued under National Service Life Insurance

⁵ For further information, veterans should go to their nearest VA office immediately after separation or release from active service.

or U.S. Government Life Insurance, such as ordinary life, 20-pay life, 30-pay life, and the various endowment plans.

Under the Servicemen's Indemnity and Insurance Acts of 1951, persons in active military service on and after that date could take any one of three courses with their permanent NSLI or USGLI policies.

They could: (1) continue to pay the full premium as in the past; (2) apply for waiver of a part of their premium, or (3) surrender their policies for the cash value and be covered by the free indemnity protection.

Those who elected to pay the full premium must continue to do so immediately after release or separation from active service if they wish to keep their policies in force thereafter.

Those who were granted a waiver of part of their permanent plan premium (under Section 622 of the NSLI Act) were instructed to pay the full premium while they were in active service and VA would refund the waived portion.

When these persons are released or separated from active service, they should continue to pay the full premiums, when due, directly to Veterans Administration, Washington 25, D.C. That portion of the waived premium which is paid under this agreement will be refunded, with interest, for the period that the waiver is in force.

Those who surrendered their permanent plan policies for cash may adopt one of two courses of action if they wish to replace or restore the surrendered permanent plan of insurance. In either of these two courses, the requirements for reinstatement or issuance of new insurance must be met within 120 days following release or separation from active service. The two courses of action are:

1. They may apply to Veterans Administration, Washington 25, D.C., in writing, without a physical examination, for the issuance of a new permanent policy on the same plan and not in excess of the amount of the policy surrendered for cash, and pay the required premium; or,

2. They may reinstate their surrendered permanent plan of insurance, without a physical examination, by paying the required reserve and the premium for the current month.⁶

⁶ Applications for reinstatement should be mailed to Veterans Administration, Washington 25, D.C.

For further information, veterans should contact their nearest VA office as soon after separation or release from service as possible.

This long summary shows the attempt made by the responsible federal officers to make practical life insurance plans for veterans.

THE RED CROSS AND PRISONERS OF WAR

In line with one of the oldest and finest traditions of the Red Cross, the proposal was made a few days before Christmas that representatives of the International Red Cross be allowed to visit the enemy's prisoner-of-war camps. General Ridgway broadcast an appeal to North Korean Premier Kim Il Sung that the International Red Cross be allowed to visit their camps. The message also was addressed to General Peng Teh-huai, the Chinese Red commander in Korea. General Ridgway renewed his earlier request that Red Cross representatives be permitted to visit the camps for the purpose of providing physical and moral assistance to prisoners. The Communists disclosed that they hold 11,559 prisoners, including 3,198 Americans.

An AP dispatch reported that there was controversy over the stalled prisoner-exchange question while rival negotiators sought a new approach to the old problem of supervising a Korean armistice. [The air force said in Washington that its Far East Command had given all combat units the location of prison camps where the Communists say they are holding war prisoners. The purpose is "to preclude accidental attacks" on the camps.]

While neither side intends to exchange prisoners until final agreement is reached on an armistice, the Eighth Army has completed plans for the reception, care, and airlift of its prisoners when the exchange can be made. Before any prisoner exchange can take place, however, the negotiators have difficult problems to hurdle—particularly on policing the armistice.

It was also announced in Washington regarding the Red Cross that almost a third of the organization's annual budget for the 1950-51 fiscal year was spent in

services to United States armed forces in this country and overseas.

The total expenditure for this service in the year was \$26,800,000.

In the first twelve months of the Korean war, this statement said, requests for help from service men and women for their families averaged 316,000 a month, an increase of 50 per cent over the preceding year. The field staff to provide Red Cross service to the military was increased by 45 per cent during the year.

The men and women engaged in foreign service areas for the Red Cross this month were listed as follows: Far East, 431; Europe, 188; North Africa, Newfoundland, Alaska, the Caribbean and the Hawaiian Islands, 101. There were thirty-seven assignments pending.

Men and women serving the Red Cross in military installations in this country total 1,750.

The work that the Red Cross does for the able-bodied in the armed services was characterized as making this service "trouble shooter for the G.I. separated from his family."

"Field directors attached to combat units go into battle with the fighting men and share the rugged conditions under which they live," it was pointed out. "Those with forward units in the fighting zone sometimes go far into the front lines to deliver an urgently wanted welfare message from home to a soldier anxiously awaiting news of an expected heir or a parent's critical illness."

During the first year of the Korean war, Red Cross aid to service men included \$5,107,400 in financial assistance, and an additional \$5,021,700 was made available for emergency needs of service men and their families by chapter workers in communities across the United States.

The service given by the Red Cross in hospitals of the armed forces, always under the direction of a woman hospital field director, was described as "identical with that given by the men field directors serving able-bodied men."

"There are reports on patients' conditions and home conditions to transmit to and receive from Red Cross chapters," the statement continued. "Chapters are notified of patients' homecomings on leave or discharge. Reports are made to families of the condition of seriously ill patients, following the original notification by the Department of Defense.

"In the United States, the hospital field director also has responsibility for the reception and accommodation of relatives of patients, particularly those summoned because the patient is seriously ill.

"In Korea, in an eleven-month period over 2,000,000 articles were given to wounded men. The American Red Cross is now operating a service club at Pusan, large stationary canteens at four Korean air bases and a fifth at Sasebo, Japan, all serving coffee and doughnuts free to fighting men. They serve more than 30,000 men daily."

REGULATION OF PRIVATE EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES

Legislation regulating the operation of private employment agencies has been adopted by forty-two states and the District of Columbia, in the hope of protecting the worker from misrepresentation of jobs, the charging of exorbitant fees, and other undesirable practices which may occur. This year four states—California, Illinois, New Jersey, and Oklahoma—made substantial changes in such laws.

Both the Illinois and the New Jersey laws require an investigation of the character and responsibility of the applicant.

A recent Oklahoma act prohibits an employment agency from furnishing employment to children in violation of the child-labor or the compulsory-school-attendance laws. Other practices prohibited under the law include misrepresenting employment to an applicant; publishing false notices; or sending a person to a place conducting a lockout or having a strike without notifying him of the fact.

The California act specifically provides for the licensing of farm labor contractors by the state labor commissioner. Formerly, farm labor contractors came under the law regulating all private employment agencies, because the definition of "labor contractor" in that act was broad enough to include farm labor contractors. The 1951 act, however, is a separate act applying only to farm labor contractors. The act requires that, before granting a license, the

commissioner must be satisfied with the applicant's character, competency, and responsibility. The applicant must have deposited with the commissioner a \$1,000 surety bond and have paid a \$25 license fee.

The license may be revoked if the contractor violates any state law regulating the employment of women or minors in agriculture, payment of wages to farm employees, or conditions of employment affecting the health and safety of farm employees. The contractor is also prohibited from splitting fees, selling an interest in his business without the approval of the labor commissioner, or placing a child in violation of the child labor laws.

WORLD FOOD CONDITIONS AND FUTURE OUTLOOK

Although world food supply in 1950-51 was slightly higher than in the previous year, the *United Nations Bulletin* tells us that progress toward the goal of enough food for all is still much too slow. This is an important point made in *The State of Food and Agriculture—Review and Outlook, 1951*, a report by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO). The report, issued late last year, warned of the danger that "the world's agricultural needs may be overlooked in the planning of huge defence programs, and that this may slow up even the present modest economic development programs of many underdeveloped countries."

"After five years of the FAO's existence," said FAO Director-General Norris Dodd in his Foreword to the report, "we had hoped that there would be much progress to report in agricultural and food consumption, especially in the areas of the greatest difficulties and shortages. The combined circumstances of world war damage on deterioration, gradually swelling populations, droughts, floods, continued civil disturbances, the diversion of energy to armed forces, and the unpreparedness of many nations for rapid or energetic development, have limited actual progress to much less than had been hoped."

The *United Nations Bulletin* thinks that, in spite of some progress in many areas, "in some of the most needy regions per capita food consumption has not gained even the low pre-war levels, although it is better than in the immediate post-war years."

In great regions where more than half of the world's peoples live, the Director-General of FAO explains, agriculture is largely conducted with inadequate equipment, few small tools, and scanty use of fertilizers or pesticides. Illiteracy is high, agricultural and other resources are poorly developed, and farmers are often held down by heavy taxes, rents, and interest charges. While the rapid advances in raw-material prices since the Korean war have increased foreign exchange earnings of raw-material-exporting countries, defense expansion threatens to reduce supplies of fertilizers, pesticides, and farm machinery available to them. "The expanding needs of defence may therefore slow up even the present modest programs of economic development in many of these under-developed countries."

It is pointed out that in order to speed up progress toward FAO's goal—"to see that all peoples have enough to eat and to improve the living standards of the mass of the world's population"—action is needed by all countries.

The under-developed countries need to tackle the problems of agricultural and industrial development with much more drive and determination. The highly industrialised countries need to take special measures to maintain and speed the economic development of less favored countries during the difficult times ahead. This involves not only keeping up and enlarging the program of technical assistance for under-developed countries now well under way, but also helping countries to get both the funds and the imported supplies necessary to carry their development programs into action.

It is pointed out that special attention must be given to allocating adequate supplies of chemicals, steel, and other scarce

materials to keep the flow of fertilizers, pesticides, and farm machinery going to food producers. "There is a real danger," we are warned, "that in the planning of huge defence programs, agricultural requirements may be overlooked." Not only could this cut down supplies in the least developed regions, but it might also check further progress in production in the more highly developed regions where postwar agricultural improvements have been most rapid.

PHYSICAL DISABILITY OF PUBLIC AID RECIPIENTS

The *New York Times* late last year called attention to a situation well known to social workers—that is, that welfare cannot be separated from health. Authorities know that this is true, and they point to a study made in St. Paul, Minnesota, by Community Research Associates, financed by the Grant Foundation, which showed that 6,600 families, 80 per cent of whom received public assistance, also had health or adjustment problems.

These "multiple problem" families, as they have been called, absorbed 68 per cent of the dependency services, 46 per cent of the health services, and 55 per cent of the "maladjustment" services.

New York is said to have completed a study of its assistance rolls. The State's Social Welfare Department found that two-thirds of the persons on home relief in a sample area suffered from physical or mental disability. Eighty per cent of the cases in another sample area had illnesses ranging from tuberculosis and arthritis to serious mental conditions and alcoholism.

This is not "news" to social workers, but it is well to have the *Times* call the attention of its readers to this situation.

AID FOR THE DISABLED

The exhibition of aids for the disabled, which was held before Christmas in London, emphasized that the word "crippled" in the sense that an individual is robbed of self-

help is now displacing the word "handicapped." An account in the London *Times* notes that "most of the simple aids were designed to extend movement limited by arthritic joints. They included a long-handled comb or shoe horn, a device for pulling on stockings, razor holders, toothbrushes, and even a long-handled lipstick. There were many appliances for use with artificial arms, including one that enabled the wearer to throw darts, and there were clever devices for blind and armless persons.

"For the bed-ridden there were a microfilm projection reader and a remotely controlled American typewriter operated from a light keyboard which rests on the bed. There was also an automatic page-turner which flicked over a page each time the reader depressed a key with his chin."

FEES IN FAMILY SERVICE AGENCIES

Social workers are interested in the report by the Family Service Association of America that there has recently been a marked increase in the number of private family agencies that have established a definite policy of charging fees for counseling and case-work services in personal and family problems. Sixty-one of these agencies, representing 26 per cent of the voluntary agencies in the membership of the Association, charged fees for counseling in 1950, as compared with twenty-two such agencies three years previously.

The question of fees for clients of social agencies, receiving their major support from the contributions of citizens in a community, has been a subject of serious discussion in the social work field for more than a decade. The issue has been largely as to whether the fees would help or hinder people in using the services of such agencies.

A study of sixty-one agencies now charging case-work fees, made by the FSAA Information Service, showed that the three factors of approximately equal weight in the development of fee-charging were as follows: (1) a belief that payment for service

by those able to afford it would be of therapeutic value to the client; (2) the likelihood that opportunity to pay for services would promote the use of family agencies by persons who might have a resistance to seeking a free service; and (3) the appropriateness of making a charge for a professional service.

The prospect of additional income has been a minor factor in the decision of the family agencies as to establishing fees. In every case, fees are charged only when the individual or family is able and willing to pay, and the income from fees remains in practically all agencies a small fraction of the total income needed to maintain the agency. Families paying fees are still a relatively small proportion of the total number aided by the sixty-one agencies, although the proportion has increased during the three years from 1947 to 1950.

Where a fee is charged for case-work counseling, the unit charge is usually on the basis of each interview. Agencies exempt a considerable number of clients from a fee charge at the outset, such exemption often including public assistance recipients, applicants referred elsewhere in the first interview, seriously disturbed individuals, displaced persons, and applicants for special services such as day care or homemaker service.

Fees range from a usual minimum of \$1.00 to a usual maximum of \$5.00, although thirteen agencies have \$10.00 as their maximum fee. Four agencies indicated that only in the few cases where the \$10.00 maximum is obtained is the usual cost of service met, and one agency estimated that this covered only 70 per cent of the service cost. In reply to the question as to what benefits have been seen as a result of the practice of charging fees, the sixty-one agencies were almost unanimous in reporting that fee-charging resulted in greater use of the agencies by people seeking professional help with family relationships and other personal problems. About two-thirds of the agencies believe fees also have led to a better understanding of family service by the agency board and the public in general.

"FUGITIVE FATHERS"

It is an echo of the attack on ADC that the Federal Security Administrator issued last fall to all state welfare directors some instructions on the Social Security Law amendment of 1950 that requires that the enforcement officials be notified whenever deserted children receive public aid. Sometimes called the "fugitive fathers' law," this amendment was designed to meet the objections of those who thought more ADC families could be made self-supporting.

Mr. Ewing set July 1, 1951, as the "deadline date" for states to have a plan for such police-welfare co-operation, or the states might not be able to receive federal matching funds for their aid-to-dependent-children program. The Administrator emphasized that each state was free to work out its own plan and that the Federal Security Agency would approve any plan that conformed to the federal law under which federal funds were granted.

Five minimum requirements set for state plans reporting desertion are discussed in the *New York Times* as necessary for states to qualify for federal funds. These have been that the plan must have a rule, regulation, or instruction that provides for prompt reporting to law-enforcement officials; it must have definite criteria for identifying persons against whom legal action for desertion or abandonment can be taken; it must contain an indication of what enforcement officials are to receive the reports; it must provide a method of sending written notices to enforcement officials as soon as the first aid-to-dependent-children payment is made, and it must provide a method of informing applicants and recipients of aid-to-dependent-children payments that law-enforcement officials will be notified if the need is the result of desertion or abandonment.

In general, it was sponsored by those who were critical of ADC legislation and wanted to reduce the number of those eligible for such grants.

THE BRUSSELS MIGRATION CONFERENCE

In December, 1951, a Migration Conference met in Brussels to try to find some way of moving the large number of persons who remain homeless, dispossessed, and disinherited. Since the International Refugee Organization was to be dissolved with its work unfinished, a new international organization to continue with the work of moving masses of people on a large scale was formed as a result of the Migration Conference in Brussels, at which twenty-three nations were present, of which sixteen almost immediately joined the new agency. As we go to press, there seems to be good hope that most of the other interested nations will join the new organization.

According to the *New York Times*, the new organization, which was to be called the "Provisional Intergovernmental Committee for the Movement of Migrants from Europe," was to have the machinery, the funds and "the international support to make a new start toward alleviating the terrible pressures of European surplus populations."

It is good to know that the new plan adopted in Brussels is largely a United States-sponsored plan, and there is reason to believe that during the next year it may accomplish the overseas movement to new lands of some 115,000 persons—"a mere drop in the bucket, but a start none the less."

According to the *Times*, in the new organization plans we are providing "a sizable share of the first year's \$37,000,000 budget, although the severity of our immigration laws restricts the number of newcomers we ourselves can accept to a point far below that which is politically and economically desirable."

There seems to be little doubt that "the migration program will go on indefinitely, or at least until the bulk of the 5,000,000 Europeans hammering at their own frontiers are permitted to get out into other countries or other continents. There is talk of combining the international financing of mi-

gration over a long period with schemes for economic development of the underpopulated countries. In any case, the results of the Brussels conference give some reason to believe that the population problem of Europe is not hopeless."

George L. Warren, chief United States delegate to the Provisional Intergovernmental Committee for the Movement of Migrants from Europe, said that he had reason to hope that six of the seven other countries which had participated in the migration conference would join the Committee within two or three months.

The budget of the committee is \$36,954,000, of which \$2,359,060 is an administrative budget, to which the United States will contribute \$1,000,000; \$14,000,000 represents contributions from member governments to the operating fund; and \$20,594,940 represents reimbursements from governments and services rendered directly by governments. Of the \$14,000,000 in the operating fund, of which the United States is expected to contribute \$9,000,000, \$11,000,000 will be expended in direct subsidies toward the movement of 116,000 or more persons.

ENGLISH CHILDREN AND THE "MOVIES"

In America we go to the "movies," while our English friends go to the "cinema." Which name is used is immaterial. Not long ago a newspaper dispatch from London told of a pamphlet issued by the London County Council for the Guidance of School Teachers—based on the investigations of teachers into the "cinema-going" habits of nearly fifteen thousand children in fifty-five London schools.

An important fact in the report is that, in the seventeen years from 1931 to 1948, the number of children going to the movies twice a week trebled. The number who never went was halved. The greatest increase was in the age groups eight to ten and eleven to fourteen, chiefly due to the Saturday cinema clubs, which hold special

programs for children in the morning. In fifteen of these clubs visited by an LCC inspector, few films specially made for children were seen.

The children saw feature films and even cartoons depicting violence, drunkenness, and "shootings-up." The LCC inspector added: "A six-year-old boy, whose face could be discerned in the half-light reflected from the screen, was standing tensely in his seat. His cry of half-anguish at the sight of a shot child, 'have they done him in?'—while he sucked hard at his thumb—was an unforgettable sight."

The investigation seemed to show that more children in London were going to the movies regularly than ever before—some as often as four, five, or even six times a week. More than half the children of school age in London seemed to go once a week.

One teacher commented significantly on the fact that girls from unhappy homes are the most frequent moviegoers. The excessive popularity of picture going seems to be due to the fact that these children do not get enough fun and stories, either in school, or at home.

Some under-age girls wear heavy makeup to appear older, so as to be admitted to an "a-film." These are "adult" films, to which, under British law, no one under 16 is admitted unless accompanied by an adult.

Despite these gloomy findings, the report declared that brutal and tough films do not turn children into juvenile delinquents, and that morally questionable films usually bore them.

WOMEN ON JURIES

In the 1951 legislative sessions two additional states—Oklahoma and New Mexico—enacted legislation providing jury service for women. The New Mexico law became effective last June, and Oklahoma enacted an emergency measure effective last May, authorizing women to serve on juries. The Oklahoma constitution prohibits women serving on juries, and a constitutional amendment that will permit their service is the subject of a special referendum scheduled for July 1, 1952. There are now

only six states in which women are not permitted to serve on juries. What we should like, however, is a study by the U.S. Women's Bureau dealing with the results of this legislation—that is, we should like to know what women have contributed to the jury services; and how jury service has affected the women who have served.

YOUNG PEOPLE ABSENT FROM SCHOOL

The *Labor Information Bulletin* reports that nearly 200,000 young people are absent from school during the school year, "not because of illness or lack of interest, but because they are employed in paid work on commercial farms," according to reports of the Bureau of the Census.

It is also pointed out by the Wage and Hour and Public Contracts Divisions of the Department of Labor that, since three times as many farm children as city children are not enrolled in school, farm children do not go as far in school as city children, and "illiteracy is twice as prevalent among the rural population as among the urban." Perhaps the most seriously affected in this category are migrant workers and their children. These youngsters may never be enrolled in school because of the transient state of their families.

Attention is also called to the fact that state and federal laws regulating working hours of school children protect the majority of city children, but farm children have been neglected. More recently, the amended Fair Labor Standards Act, which became effective January 25, 1950, also is valuable for the following reasons:

It supplements and reinforces State child-labor and school attendance laws by providing a 16-year minimum age for hired work in agriculture during school hours on farms whose products go into interstate commerce. This means that it is illegal to hire children under 16 during school hours, that is those hours when the school where the child is currently living is in session.

The administration of this law is in the hands of the U.S. Department of Labor and Public Contracts Divisions, whose field staff carries on investigations in field and factory to enforce compliance with the law. As the school year began the Divisions waged a strong campaign to acquaint employers, employees, school officials, agricultural agents, and the community in general with the law. To achieve the most widespread coverage, all media of communication were employed—press, radio, public appearances. Field representatives of the Divisions prepared material for release, created radio scripts, cooperated with school officials in distributing pamphlets and leaflets. Working together, officials of local, State, and Federal governmental units have secured understanding of the law and have enforced it with a large degree of success. However, much remains to be done, particularly among the migrant workers.

UNICEF IS FIVE YEARS OLD

A report in the *New York Times* reminds us that the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund last December marked its fifth anniversary as a world welfare agency.

More than 40,000,000 children in sixty countries will have been helped by the United Nations agency since the autumn day in 1946 when the late Fiorello H. La Guardia appeared at Lake Success to plead with the world's statesmen to create a new type of agency. He spoke for the new agency not in the role of New York's former mayor but as the head of the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration, then being liquidated.

The windup of the relief group, he warned, would leave the world's children in serious plight, and he urged creation of a children's fund to give youngsters for the first time in history an "equal chance" to share in the benefits of scientific progress.

Since the winter of 1946, the agency, known in most nations simply as "U.N.I.C.E.F.," has given milk and foodstuffs to millions, supplied shoes and clothing and medical help, and organized child-care facilities in many underdeveloped or war-devastated countries.

New programs for 1952, agency officials say, will give increasing emphasis to the needs of children in the less prosperous countries of

Asia, Africa, the Middle East and Latin America, just as the Children's Fund's first efforts were spent in aiding youngsters in post-war Europe.

The Children's Fund has drawn up a \$30,000,000 target budget for the present year, and its leaders hope this will cover planned programs and provide some leeway for catastrophes like the floods in Italy, which left thousands of Italian youngsters in need of help.

Operation of even this limited budget, agency officials have said, will depend on the voluntary contributions of governments. In the past, fifty-five states have given \$115,000,000, with the United States contributing the largest share, \$75,000,000. To carry out the planned activities almost \$20,000,000 must be collected, in addition to the \$10,056,000 allocated at the last meeting in Paris of the Children's Fund's Executive Board.

The relief agency's financial troubles are complicated by the fact that the United States has appropriated a new contribution but has not transferred the funds for use. The new \$5,750,000 contribution was voted by Congress last March but has been held up while the State Department and Congress decide the terms under which the American gift must be "matched" by other states. President Truman has asked also that an additional \$12,000,000 be authorized for the agency for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1952. While the Senate has given the recommendation unanimous approval, Washington circles fear that it may not get House backing.

In its five years of work, Maurice Pate, executive director of the agency, has said that its budget has been given a vote of confidence repeatedly by United Nations members who have approved it without dissent.

The new programs, Mr. Pate said, give increasing regard to long-term assistance projects to the organization of maternal and child-care facilities, milk conservation programs, training courses in nutrition, disease prevention and health education. Among others, projects approved in Paris include emergency work for Korean and Palestine child refugees. Funds were provided for maternal and child care in Afghanistan, Burma, India and Pakistan. Countries in the eastern Mediterranean area received aid for campaigns against tuberculosis and to fight insect-borne diseases with DDT equipment.

The programs for Europe include a special project to aid handicapped Greek children and another to bolster the milk-conservation program in Yugoslavia. For Latin America, the Children's Fund allocated \$550,000 at its Paris meeting for further demonstration feeding, insect control and maternal and child-care projects.

AN ANTI-GENOCIDE RESOLUTION

The executive committee of the World Jewish Congress declined at a meeting last fall to attend a Yugoslav-sponsored peace conference in Zagreb. The letter of rejection, which was couched in extremely polite terms, said that the action was not intended to bind affiliates of the Congress. No explanation of the rejection was offered. It was noted that the Congress was still trying to protect Jewish communities in Hungary, Rumania, and Bulgaria, activities that could not be made easier by participation in an anti-Cominform peace congress.

The executive committee adopted resolutions urging the immediate ratification of the United Nations genocide convention by the major powers and also requested revision of the United Nations statute for Libya. The genocide resolutions requested the United States, Britain, Russia, and China by name, and other governments generally, to ratify the treaty that would make it an international crime to seek extermination or suppression of racial groups. The resolution on Libya asked the United Nations General Assembly to provide for autonomous administration by Jews of their educational, religious, and charitable institutions. It also asked participation of these institutions in the distribution of public funds and to assure the right to emigrate freely.

A UNION HEALTH CENTER EXPANDS

Social workers who have known of the social program of the Amalgamated Garment Workers will be interested to know

that the services of the Sidney Hillman Health Center have been made available to the wives of workers in the men's clothing industry.

The president of the center and manager of the New York joint board of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, CIO, reported that union members had made 45,000 visits to the center since it was opened last April 14. He said that the service had proved so valuable that it was decided to extend it to wives this year and to bring in children in 1953. "If workers are worried about the health of their families," he said, "they can't be full productive members of the union or of society. In too many instances family health must be neglected because of economic factors. We are trying in our own industry to offset this through our health center and through our employer-financed hospital and health insurance program."

The center's board of directors has authorized an appropriation of \$300,000 for a ten-year program of research in heart disease and arthritis. Dr. Ernst P. Boas is chairman of the advisory council.

NEW YORK PLANS "CAVALCADE"

A major project dramatizing national accomplishments in the field of human welfare is said to be in the works in New York City. *Channels* reported just before Christmas that there was scheduled to take place in 1953 the project known as "Cavalcade of Human Welfare," which was proposed in November by Raymond Hilliard, executive director of the New York Welfare Council; and, with the support of the municipal administration's chief executive, the proposal has been approved by the Council's board and delegate body, and a committee to organize the project was being formed.

The "Cavalcade," it is said, would provide a means by which "all agencies in the field of human welfare, including social welfare and health agencies, foundations, industries and business organizations which have done something about human welfare

and plan to do more, could depict most effectively for the whole world, their accomplishments, their goals, their plans and their programs."

It is also proposed that there be an award "on an international basis" of twenty-five medals "to the persons, organizations or industries who have made the most notable, valuable, significant or important contribution to a particular area in the field of human welfare." It is suggested that recipients of such awards would be "notified well in advance of the presentation and would be expected to prepare an acceptance in the form of a paper or book setting forth the outlook in their fields concerning present, past and future developments."

The general outline of the program indicates that the Welfare Council would assume responsibility for the planning and development of the event under the mayor of New York. The project apparently would be under the auspices of the Welfare Council, but it "would not be an operation of the Council." However, it is not clear that the financial support for the "Cavalcade" has not yet been arranged.

"In endorsing the idea of the 'Cavalcade,' the Mayor declared his belief that such an event could go far toward the achievement of broad public understanding and recognition of the values of human welfare services, thus providing a base upon which public support could be obtained."

THE FORD FOUNDATION

The Ford Foundation, the most recently organized of the great foundations, is also the largest, with assets of \$500,000,000 and with \$25,000,000-\$30,000,000 available for annual grants. Two well-known directors are Paul G. Hoffman, former head of the ECA, and Dr. Robert M. Hutchins, until recently chancellor of the University of Chicago. Last year the foundation had a very impressive series of requests for help. The office in Pasadena, California, is said to have received one thousand "applica-

tions and inquiries" every week. Applications were received from four thousand educational institutions, asking for help to the amount of \$250,000,000. The *New York Times* reported that "requests for help deluge the Ford Fund."

In the last twelve months the foundation allocated about \$23,000,000 for various educational and other projects. "The emphasis is on strengthening the freedom of peace-loving peoples everywhere."

In the organization of the fund the Stanford University dean of the humanities, Dr. Clarence H. Faust, has become president of the Ford Fund for the Advancement of Education. Dr. Alvin C. Eurich, former president of the State University of New York, resigned to take the post of vice-president.

In the year since the trustees authorized the making of grants, \$17,000,000 has been used to establish the independent funds and new programs. The Fund for the Advancement of Education was established with an initial appropriation of \$7,154,000 to deal with the problems of education at primary, secondary, college, and university levels.

The Fund for Adult Education was established also as an independent organization with an initial grant of \$3,000,000. A television-radio workshop has been set up, with an additional fund of \$1,200,000. The Free University of Berlin has received \$1,400,000, while the overseas program has been allotted \$5,000,000.

Work will be done in the Middle and Far East. Tentatively this program includes support of the American University at Beirut—both to establish it as an agricultural center in the Middle East and to strengthen its liberal arts school. The fund will support demonstration-training village improvement centers in India and establish technical schools and domestic science schools in Pakistan.

In interviews with Mr. Hoffman, Dr. Hutchins, and Dr. Eurich, the plans and objectives for the coming year were outlined. It was explained that the promotion of better understanding on the part of our people and other peoples of the world was a "fruitful project" for the foundation. Mr. Hoffman said: "We are thinking in the area of strengthening our democracy. The problem is to protect the rights of all of us. We are planning to support a pro-

gram that will protect those areas of our free society which have given it strength and also to combat any activities that tend to weaken our society. We want to devote ourselves to projects that will help maintain peace."

Four definite educational projects are to be undertaken in the coming year, Dr. Eurich reported. Declaring that the Ford Fund for the Advancement of Education was ready to work on every level, from the elementary school through college, he said that education would be considered as an integrated unit.

These programs are to be supported:

1. A study of general education on the high school level, to determine how it can be integrated with college education. The fund is concerned with improving the entire program of general education. A committee of ten high school and college educators is to be appointed to formulate general policies for the study. A grant of \$50,000 has been made for the exploratory work.

2. A study of the education of teachers. Work will be done in teacher-training institutions, liberal arts colleges and educational groups generally. This is to be a long-range program.

3. An examination of the critical area of education on the elementary and high school levels. Here recent attacks on the teaching of the three R's will be considered.

4. A study of the educational programs abroad. Dr. Eurich, accompanied by Dr. Faust were scheduled to take a trip around the world during the late fall and early winter of the current year. On the basis of their visits to foreign countries, a Ford-supported plan will be initiated to help the program abroad. In fact, a substantial portion of the foundation funds, perhaps up to one-third of the Ford money, will probably be spent abroad.

In explaining the principles that govern the granting of funds, Dr. Eurich said, "We are not concerned with the program of one institution, however good it may be."

"The question we always ask," he added, "is this: how will the project help education, not what will it do to the institution. Also we have certain don'ts—we will not provide money to construct buildings. We will not give funds for the general operating expenses of an institution."

Dr. Hutchins declared that the Ford money

would be allocated to go into projects that might have significant consequences to the entire field of education.

PROFESSOR LINDEMAN ON LINCOLN AND THE RIGHTS OF HABEAS CORPUS

Professor Eduard C. Lindeman, well known as a long-time faculty member of the New York School of Social Work, recently made an interesting statement regarding civil liberties. Professor Lindeman has served on the board of directors of the American Civil Liberties Union for many years.

At a recent forum meeting in a university city Professor Lindeman said that he had taken the position that one might be sympathetic with the foreign policies of the United States, particularly as related to the struggle against Communist expansion, and at the same time remain sharply critical of those domestic policies which constitute a threat to our civil liberties.

He was thereupon asked the question he had met in several public gatherings recently, namely, "Is it not sound policy to curtail certain liberties at a time of crisis and then restore these as soon as the danger is past?" And a further question was, "Isn't this precisely what President Lincoln did when he suspended the right of habeas corpus during the Civil War?"

Professor Lindeman's reply was as follows:

The implication of this question is that those of us who care about civil liberties need not be more squeamish in emergencies than was the Great Emancipator, whose devotion to the Bill of Rights was beyond question. The secondary implication is that there is no danger in suspending liberties so long as there exists a determination to restore these rights the moment it is safe to do so.

It occurs to me that those who resort to this analogy in order to justify contemporary defection regarding civil rights make a poor use of history.

It is of course true that President Lincoln

suspended the writ of habeas corpus in a series of proclamations beginning in 1861 and ending in 1864. He also ordered its suspension through directives issued to various military commanders.

He pointed out that in each instance there had been an overt act of rebellion and that danger which faced the nation was not imaginary, not a mere threat. Persons opposed to the North were actually involved in rebellious acts. Both the Pennsylvania and the Baltimore and Ohio railroads had been destroyed in Baltimore. "Troops headed for the South could not pass through the city of Baltimore. The military draft was openly resisted. If ever a nation was faced with a clear and present danger," he said, "it was during this fateful period of the Civil War." Professor Lindeman said further:

What Lincoln actually did was to declare martial law in those regions where civil law and the courts had disintegrated. He was severely criticized. Delegations came to Washington to protest. Lincoln stood firmly by his decision. He was determined to save the Union. To his critics he responded with a simple alternative: habeas corpus will be restored the moment rebellious acts are renounced and put down by local governments.

Altogether the suspension did not last more than three years and most instances much less. And it is probably correct to assert that in terms of fact American devotion to this particular right intensified after its return.

Professor Lindeman then asked, "Is it reasonable to argue from this fact that it is now perfectly safe to sacrifice the Bill of Rights in order to combat domestic communism? I think not," he said, "and for two reasons: first, because there exists no such danger as faced Lincoln, and secondly, because the present method is not that of proclamation and military directive but rather that of legislation which is thereafter brought into constitutional alignment through court decisions. In this manner it becomes entirely possible to alter the interpretation of the Bill of Rights in ways

which may be extremely difficult to change." That is, according to Professor Lindeman, Lincoln's suspension of habeas corpus was a military act performed in the light of open rebellion. "It was not an attempt to alter the basic nature of our liberties. As Lincoln himself said to a critical senator at the time: 'I conceive that I may in an emergency do things on military grounds which cannot be done constitutionally by Congress.'"

WELFARE PAMPHLETS AND REPORTS

The *Review* office has received some interesting pamphlets, reports, and briefer books that we have not had space to review. We are, however, glad to list some of them here for the benefit of our readers.

Rural Health and Social Policy, by Elin Lilia Anderson, 1900-1951 (pp. 31; with portrait), is a memorial volume to a social worker and rural health expert, privately published by an editorial committee of which Michael M. Davis was chairman. Born in Canada, Elin Anderson graduated from the University of Manitoba and the New York School of Social Work; she had a varied experience through the Farm Foundation and the Extension Service of the Department of Agriculture.

From the National Child Labor Committee come three of its reports: (1) *Child Labor at the Mid-Century: Annual Report Ending September 30, 1950* (pp. 22); (2) *Migrant Farm Labor in Colorado: A Study of Migratory Families*, by Howard E. Thomas and Florence Taylor, on the staff of the Child Labor Committee, based on a field survey in Colorado, July-October, 1950, interviewing household heads and homemakers in a sampling of 262 seasonal agricultural families in the state when the survey was made (1951; pp. 116; \$1.25; processed); and (3) *Colorado Tale*, an illustrated booklet telling vividly the story of Colorado migratory farm workers, their children, and their needs—"All of us need what few of us have, a nicer home, a

place to play, nurseries for the young when we go to work, schools for our children, medical care when we need it" (New York: National Child Labor Committee, Pub. No. 406, November, 1951; pp. 21; \$0.40).

1951 Directory of Vocational Counseling Agencies, an approved list prepared and distributed by the Ethical Practices Committee of the National Vocational Guidance Association (Box 64, Washington University, St. Louis; pp. 125; \$1.00), is a convenient guide for those in need of vocational or educational advice.

First Annual Report, 1950-51, National Association for Mental Health, Inc. (1790 Broadway, New York 19; pp. 23). This national citizens' association does not give direct psychiatric services but works for the improvement of these services through consultation, education, and research, its most extensive research project being on the causes of dementia praecox; it helps finance inspection and rating programs for public mental hospitals—during the past year forty-two hospitals have been inspected; its organization work contributed in the past year to the formation of sixty-eight new citizens' mental health associations; it took an active part in the field of international affairs in bringing to the United States from abroad outstanding psychiatrists and social scientists to acquaint the American people with the development of new methods of treatment and the application of scientific knowledge in furthering mental health.

Our National Health Problem (Pub. No. 87, October, 1951, Research Council for Economic Security, Chicago; pp. 26; available upon request without charge) presents the latest available data, by states, on population, medical facilities, sources of individual protection, and other statistics relating to the health program.

Housing Legislation in New York State in the 1951 Legislative Session, prepared by Charlotte E. Abbott (New York: Community Service Society Committee on Housing, 105 E. 22d St., 1951; pp. ii+62), a report

summarizing the work of the committee during the 1951 legislative session. The committee is concerned solely with bills that would affect housing conditions in New York City. There is a digest of each bill studied by the committee, together with the committee's comments and recommendations and the action taken by the legislature and the governor. A brief digest of all other state housing bills that were passed is given in the Appendix.

Housing Today: Key to Chicago's Tomorrow: Annual Report of the Chicago Housing Authority to the Mayor of Chicago, 1950 (Chicago, 1951; pp. 41 + 3 appendixes) reviews the year's experience in Chicago's public housing and emphasizes facts and figures attempting "to pin down specifically the extent of Chicago's over-all housing need" and also emphasizes "why fulfilling the housing need is important, why failing to do something today about this need is dangerous to Chicago's tomorrow."

"*Relief*" *Dollars and Sense*, the 1950 annual report of the Chicago Department of Welfare (pp. 13), states that "for the past year, particularly, the Department has been able to place major emphasis upon 'assisting' indigent citizens back to self-sufficiency rather than upon merely 'relieving' them." *The Important Part*, the annual report of the department for 1951 (pp. 10), "sums up the manner in which this City Department discharged its responsibility to the community during 1951."

Alcoholism and Social Stability: A Study of Occupational Integration in 2,023 Male Clinic Patients, by Robert Straus and Selden D. Bacon, Yale Center of Alcohol Studies, is published by Hill House Press, New Haven, and distributed by the Quarterly Journal of Studies on Alcohol, Yale Station, New Haven (1951; pp. 30; \$0.50).

Community Trusts of America: Their Origin, Development and Status after Thirty-six Years, 1914-1950: A Review of Community Trust Experience, by Frank D. Loomis, secretary, National Committee on Founda-

tions and Trusts for Community Welfare; executive director, the Chicago Community Trust, 1919-49; with the assistance of an Editorial Advisory Committee (Chicago: National Committee on Foundations and Trusts for Community Welfare, 10 S. La Salle St., Chicago 3, 1950; pp. 52; \$1.00 single copy; special quantity rates).

Education for Public Social Welfare: Proceedings of Third Annual Conference, sponsored by the Pennsylvania Committee on Preparation for Public Social Welfare and the Pennsylvania Association of Colleges and Universities, Harrisburg, February 9-10, 1951 (pp. 113). Among the subjects dealt with are "Relationship between Agencies and Schools," "Contributions of Certain Disciplines and Activities of the Liberal Arts College and University to Education for Positions in Public Social Welfare," "Reports from the Schools of Social Work," and "Report of an Institute in Supervision Given for Supervisory Personnel Employed in County Assistance Boards." *Building a Better State* is the post-conference issue, December, 1951, of the Missouri Association for Social Welfare (Vol. 13, No. 2; pp. 21).

Missouri's Three Training Schools, Boonville, Chillicothe, Tipton: Reports and Recommendations, No. II, prepared by the State Child Care Committee, deals with standards for a children's institution, basic purposes of a training school, the director and superintendent in relation to the merit system (Jefferson City: Missouri Association for Social Welfare, 1951; pp. 16). *Youth within Walls: A Study of the Correctional Treatment of the 16 to 21 Year Old Male Offender in New York State Institutions with Recommendations for Future Development*, by Bertram M. Beck, is based on a study by the Community Service Society's Bureau of Public Affairs and the Subcommittee on Delinquency of the Society's Youth Bureau Committee (Community Service Society, 105 E. Twenty-second St., New York; pp. 70; \$0.50). *The Juvenile Court, Today and Tomorrow*, by John Watson, is the eleventh

Clarke Hall Lecture (London: Clarke Hall Fellowship, Tavistock Square, W.C. 1, 1951; pp. 40; 1s. 6d.).

A Pioneer Workshop in Student Selection, by Sidney Berengarten, assistant professor of social work, New York School of Social Work (Bulletin of the NYSSW, July, 1951; pp. 12). The School, in its long-time objective of conducting personal interviews with all applicants to the School no matter where located, invited thirty-nine of its graduates to the workshop as admissions interviewers for the School, since the use of alumni seemed the best solution to the problem of distance. The proceedings will be used to prepare a comprehensive report on admissions interviewing.

Toward Basic Research in Social Work, by William E. Gordon, is a publication of the School of Social Work, Washington University, St. Louis (1951; pp. 26). *Canadian Social Work*, by R. E. G. Davis, reprinted from the 1951 *Social Work Year Book*, is published in convenient form by the Canadian Welfare Council, Ottawa (1951; pp. 11; \$0.15). *Curriculum Guide, English and Social Studies, Grades 7, 8, 9*, published by the Minneapolis Public Schools (1951; 17 pp.), presents in condensed form what is being taught in English and Social Studies or in a course called "Common Learnings, 1951-52."

Analysis of Family Service Agency Operation: Casework Statistics, 1950. Data from 60 Private Member Agencies of the Family Service Association of America, by Ann W. Shyne, research consultant, Information Service, who reviews trends in agency operation since 1936 and analyzes developments in 1950, based on data submitted monthly by sixty FSAA member agencies (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1951; pp. 32; \$0.75). *French-Canadian Culture and Social Casework*, by Carmen Couillard, a study of certain French-Canadian cultural patterns and some of their implications in social case work ("Studies in Social Work," Pub. No. 2, St. Patrick's College of the University of Ottawa, 1951; pp.

48; \$0.50; processed). *For Volunteers Who Interview*, by Kathleen Ormsby Larkin, assistant director, Volunteer Bureau, Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago (Welfare Council, 1951; pp. v+47; \$1.00).

Help at Last for Cerebral Palsy, by Eugene J. Taylor (distributed by the National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Chicago; pp. 31; \$0.20), and *Something Can Be Done about Chronic Illness*, by Herbert Yahraes (pp. 32; \$0.25), are Public Affairs Pamphlets, published by Public Affairs Committee, Inc., New York 16.

Minimum Professional Standards for Medical Groups, prepared and adopted by the Medical Control Board of the Health Insurance Plan of Greater New York (New York: HIP, 1951; pp. 16). *An Annotated Bibliography of Group Practice, 1927-1950* (rev. ed.), prepared by the Bureau of Medical Economic Research, American Medical Association Bulletin 85 (Chicago, 1951; pp. 72). *Medical Care Expenditures, Prices and Quantity, 1930-1950*, by Frank G. Dickinson, director of medical economic research, American Medical Association, Bulletin 87 (Chicago, 1951; pp. 15).

World Peace Ideology: A Detailed Program for a Compulsory World Government, by Martin O. Olson (New York: William-Frederick Press, 1951; pp. 27; \$0.50).

Notes for Revolution: A Tool for Basic Education, a revolution for universal democracy (New York: William-Frederick Press, 1951; pp. 25; single copy free).

The Heritage of the Printed Word is an address given on July 8, 1951, by Storer B. Lunt, President of W. W. Norton and Company, Inc., at the meeting of the American Library Association held in Chicago (pp. 7).

NOTES FROM THE PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS

The American Association of Schools of Social Work held its thirty-third annual meeting in New York, January 30-February 2, with Dean Helen Wright of the Uni-

versity of Chicago presiding as president of the Association. There was an unusually large attendance, with fifty-six of the fifty-eight schools represented, and many of the schools had more than one member of the faculty present. Anna E. King, dean of the Fordham School of Social Work, was chairman of the Program Committee, and Margaret Leal, of the New York School of Social Work, was chairman of the Committee on Local Arrangements. Conference hosts included Dean Kenneth D. Johnson of the New York School; Dean Alexander F. Handel of the Adelphi College School; and Dean Anna E. King. Speakers at the general sessions included Dean Ralph W. Tyler, Division of the Social Sciences, University of Chicago; Professor Charlotte Towle of the Chicago School; Patrick M. Malin, director, American Civil Liberties Union; and Professor Grace L. Coyle of the Western Reserve School. At one of the general sessions, with Dean Youngdahl of Washington University School of Social Work as chairman, a panel of speakers discussed "Criteria Used To Determine Entrance to the Professions," including Thomas F. Jordan, of the School of Education, Fordham University; "Law," by Livingston Hall, of Harvard Law School; "Medicine," by Carlyle Jacobsen, executive dean of medical education, State University of New York; "Ministry," by Dean Walter G. Muelder of the School of Theology, Boston University; and "Social Work," by Sue W. Spencer, director of the Tennessee School of Social Work; and, finally, a discussion of "Objective Measurement," by Gerald V. Lannholm, of the Princeton Educational Testing Service.

At the final general session, when Dean Arlien Johnson of the University of Southern California School of Social Work and vice-president of AASSW presided, Dean Helen Wright spoke on "The Years Ahead."

At the luncheon for deans and directors Arlien Johnson, chairman of the Committee on Faculty Workloads and Salaries, presided and presented a preliminary report

from her committee.

The subjects of the different workshops included the following: "Safeguarding the Educational Focus of Field Work," "Who Should Teach What in Human Growth and Behavior," "How Can the Curriculum Help Develop Sound Thinking about Public Policy," and "The Common Skills and Understandings Utilized in Social Work Practice." The chairmen of the various sections included Virginia S. Bellsmith, Laurin E. Hyde, and Grace White, all from the New York School; Mary Houk, Division of Social Service, Indiana University; Annette Garrett, Smith College School; Jeannette Regensburg, Community Service Society of New York; Isabel Stamm, University of Pittsburgh; Inabel B. Lindsay, Howard University School; Anne Wilkens, University of Texas School; John C. Kidneigh and Gisela Konopka, University of Minnesota School; and Harleigh B. Trecker, University of Connecticut.

Officers of the Association for the coming year were elected as follows: Dean Helen R. Wright, University of Chicago, re-elected president; Dean Arlien Johnson, University of Southern California, re-elected vice-president; Dean John C. Kidneigh, University of Minnesota, elected secretary; and Dean Emil M. Sunley, University of Denver, re-elected treasurer.

In December, 1941, the University of Toronto announced the appointment of Professor Charles E. Hendry as director of the university's School of Social Work. Professor Hendry was born and reared in Canada, but he has been well known in the United States, for he spent twenty years here and only returned to Canada something over five years ago. He received his B.A. degree from McMaster University and did graduate work at Columbia University and the University of Chicago. He taught in Teachers College, Columbia University, and served as research associate in the Research Center for Group Dynamics, which

was at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and is now located at the University of Michigan.

Professor Hendry was given a six-month leave of absence from the University of Toronto in 1950. Working on a team led by Dr. Arthur H. Compton, chancellor of Washington University, he visited every country in western Europe except Portugal and Spain, to assist in the development of world brotherhood. In this connection he directed an Institute on Intergroup Education at UNESCO House in Paris. Later he spent three months studying citizen participation and social policy in Finland, Sweden, Norway, and Denmark as a United Nations Fellow. In the summer of 1951 he again visited Europe and served as a consultant in conferences at Hattenheim, Germany, and at the University of Copenhagen. While in Europe he completed work for a book on "The Role of the Group in World Reconstruction," soon to be published. Since his appointment at the University of Toronto, Professor Hendry has been actively associated with various important organizations in Canada. He was elected a member of the board of governors of the Canadian Welfare Council and made chairman of its Recreation Division. He is chairman of the Canadian Committee on Group Relations, jointly sponsored by the French- and English-speaking Adult Education Association in Canada.

His major responsibility at the University of Toronto has been teaching and research in the field of community organization. During two periods, one when the director of the School of Social Work was on duty in Egypt and again during his illness, Professor Hendry served as acting director of the school.

A trip to Europe in the summer of 1952 or \$500 will be given to the winner of the first national prize in the Twenty-sixth Annual National Student Contest on the United Nations, announced in early December by the AAUN. This contest, "which

is now entering its second quarter of a century, is devoted to teaching and inspiring high-school students to a knowledge and understanding of United Nations and international affairs."

The contest takes the form of an examination which is given at the same time across the country in all the schools registering their participation. The date for the event is March 27, 1952. Schools which register will receive free one set of study material, and students will concentrate their preparation both in class and in extra-curriculum work during the first ten weeks of 1952.

In addition to the first prize of a trip to Europe, which is planned through scholarship arrangements with the Experiment in International Living and the American Youth Hostels, the second prize is \$100 in cash and the opportunity for college scholarships in certain colleges. Teachers and students interested in the contest should write directly to Education Department, AAUN, 45 East Sixty-fifth Street, New York City.

A Guide to League of Nations Publications: A Bibliographical Survey of the Work of the League, 1920-1947, by Hans Aufricht, provides a complete listing and classification of the various League publications. The author has also given a historical outline of the League, its functions, and its principal agencies.

Arthur Sweetser, who was a member of the Secretariat of the League during its entire existence, has written the Introduction, in which he says that the *Guide* is "the only such effort to cover the whole League period." And, Mr. Sweetser adds, "fortunately for the historian whatever else the League was able or unable to do, it kept its documents extraordinarily well."

The thirty-first council meeting of the International Federation of University Women, which met at the Pietersberg, a social and cultural vacation center near

Arnhem, Holland, made some important decisions. For example, the readmission of the German Federation was approved. The German Federation withdrew from the International Federation of University Women in 1935, when all the German women's organizations were obliged to merge into the central "Frauenwerk" set up by the Nazi government. The decision to readmit the German Federation was reached at what was said to be "a moving and unforgettable session." Council members from formerly German-occupied countries—France, Holland, and Norway—as well as England took the lead in supporting German readmission, stating that it was precisely because they remembered the evils of Nazi Germany and the suffering it caused that they wished to take this step to strengthen democratic forces in Germany and in particular to raise the status of women in Germany by ending their isolation and offering them the hand of international friendship.

In another important resolution the council urged the Economic and Social Council of the United Nations to recommend the continuance and regular meeting of the Status of Women Commission, pointing out that it had already done valuable work in drawing the attention of member nations to discriminations against women existing in various parts of the world and that efforts must be continued if traditional attitudes regarding the inferiority of women are to be broken down and women accepted as equals in political and economic society. There was widespread interest in and support for increased activity in behalf of equal pay for equal work for women."

The *Journal of the American Association of University Women* notes that the council reaffirmed the decision of the Zurich Conference last year that "continued help must be given to displaced university women by correspondence, parcels, and supervisory care of emigrants to assure their intellectual contacts and physical wellbeing after emi-

gration. Use of the UNESCO gift coupons scheme was recommended to national associations as a good means of assisting in rehabilitation and international cultural exchange."

At the last 1951 session, Congress made over \$4,000,000,000 available to the Veterans Administration to finance its various health, education, and social welfare programs. Increased funds were voted for the expanding hospital and medical program, and substantial smaller amounts were voted for the so-called readjustment programs—particularly for education and training.

Public Law 239 makes veterans of the Korean campaign eligible for vocational rehabilitation benefits on the same basis as veterans of World War II.

Twenty-seven states now require health education in secondary schools by law, according to a recent federal government report, *Health Instruction in the Secondary Schools*. *Channels* reports that, in six additional states, health education in secondary schools is required by regulation of the state departments of education. Of these thirty-three states, twenty-five report that health instruction is included in the curriculum as a required subject. Standards for health education are set by co-operative arrangement in most states, involving local schools, educational authorities, and public health agencies, the report indicates.

The Adult Education Association of the United States has been granted support by the Fund for Adult Education for the establishment of a monthly magazine for lay, part-time, and professional workers in the field of adult education. The little publication, called *Channels*, which is published by the National Publicity Council for Health and Welfare Services, has informed us that the Association has received \$94,000 to finance the publication project for the first year, during which the first six issues

of the magazine will appear. The Fund for Adult Education was established last spring by the Ford Foundation.

Contents of the new magazine, which will probably be called "Leadership," will be planned to deal systematically with the improvement of the quality of leadership in community and group activities of an education nature. Preliminary editorial plans call for the presentation and analysis of case studies of adult education activities, interpretation of the needs for adult education, and information on techniques, methods, and materials useful in adult education.

Large numbers of social workers were glad to read in the *Survey* the account of the Terry Award which was granted to Gertrude Springer at the last annual conference of the American Public Welfare Association. For twelve years Gertrude Springer was an associate editor of the *Survey* and was responsible for the *Survey Midmonthly* when she created the delightful "Miss Bailey." "Miss Bailey" will not be forgotten by many of us who owed a great deal to her wisdom—which was so delightfully readable. The presentation of the award to "Miss Bailey" was very appropriately made by Robert Lansdale, commissioner of the New York State Department of Social Welfare.

The École de Service Social, affiliated with Laval University Social Sciences Faculty in Quebec, announced the first number of its quarterly periodical in the spring of 1951, *Service social: Revue trimestrielle, publiée par l'École de Service Social Faculté des Sciences Sociales*, a periodical especially for French-speaking social workers. Each issue will contain leading articles from professional social workers, documents and teaching records, and reports of national, international, and local activities in social work. The first issue attempted to show the interrelationships between the different university disciplines and social work—what social work can borrow from them and also

can be of some help to them. The second issue will be entirely focused on university teaching of social work and integration of a university curriculum of social work.

Dr. Walter Friedlander, associate professor of social welfare, University of California School of Social Welfare, is spending his sabbatical leave during 1951-52 in Europe, in research for his forthcoming study on "International Social Services."

The George Warren Brown School of Social Work, Washington University, plans to inaugurate next fall a new graduate program leading to the degree of Doctor of Social Work. The program, recently authorized by the Washington University Corporation, puts primary concentration in the area of social work research. A number of advanced research seminars have been arranged by the research staff, headed by William E. Gordon, professor of social work research. Work in other related areas on the graduate level will be open to students on the basis of individually planned programs. The degree, which will require a minimum of two years' work, after three years of experience following a Master of Social Work degree, will be awarded on the basis of mastery of a field of work. Work under the new program is designed to help qualified candidates prepare for teaching, practice in research, or administration of a research division of an operating social agency.

Students at Boston University have organized a volunteer service program for vital community work to local social agencies, hospitals, and institutions for the blind. Under the leadership of the office of the university chaplain and three student clubs, it is hoped that the service program will perform much-needed services to the Greater Boston community.

The work was begun under the impetus of the three clubs, and the students have

already met with New England social workers to discuss volunteer jobs available and the agencies needing workers.

IN MEMORIAM

MARY KINGSBURY SIMKHOVITCH, 1867-1951

The head of Greenwich House for nearly half a century, Mrs. Simkhovitch had been a leader among settlement workers not only in New York City, where she began her work in the College Settlement in 1898, but in a much wider area.

She was born in Massachusetts and educated at Boston University and Radcliffe College, and later she studied at the University of Boston and at Columbia University. She was married in 1899 to Dr. Vladimir Simkhovitch, a well-known scholar, who was a professor of economic history at Columbia University. Together they made Greenwich House, which they organized in Greenwich Village, one of the great American settlements. Mrs. Simkhovitch was for a time on the Barnard College faculty. She was in the early years a lecturer at the New York School of Social Work. She was a member of various important committees and was one of the directors of the National Public Housing Conference and an important figure in the National Federation of Settlements. She wrote quickly and well and was the author of several books, including *The City Worker's World* (1917), *Neighborhood* (1942), and her fine semiautobiographical book, *Here Is God's Plenty: Reflections on American Social Advance*. Miss Lea Taylor, head resident of the Chicago Commons, in reviewing *Here Is God's Plenty*, said of the author:

The experience with her neighbors led her to develop the settlement with special emphasis upon community organization and upon drama, music, and the arts. The street life and home life of her neighbors broadened her acquaintance with the great need of decent housing programs, to which cause she devoted many years of her life. Child welfare and health also

became major concerns. Her service on many city and state committees and commissions gave her the opportunity to apply to the broad problems of social welfare, her intimate knowledge of the family life and problems of her local community.

From the earliest days she . . . worked as part of the body politic, seeking reform through legislation, cultivating relationships which would make for more enlightened citizenship. She . . . maintained acquaintance with many individuals whose contribution to life has been vivid and challenging and of whom she gives rewarding word pictures.

. . . It is impossible to give an idea of the underlying philosophy of life which is woven into each page of her book.¹

Mrs. Roosevelt in her column of November 26, 1951, wrote of her:

It was with great regret that I read of Mrs. Simkhovitch's death and yet such a life as hers can only be considered a triumph. . . . She conquered so much in her world, meeting poverty and disease and crime, and making a record in her neighborhood of creating a better place in which to live. Through the young people who came to Greenwich House and have gone on often to fill important places in the world, her influence has extended far and wide.

Because she felt that housing was the root of many social evils, she worked in her city and state and in the nation for improved housing. She always carried weight in any group with which she served because of sincerity and enthusiasm.

I feel it has been one of the privileges of my life to have watched her grow in influence, both through the success of her work and through the recognition of her ability by men and women in high places.

There will be many friends in her neighborhood and in faraway places who will grieve that they can no longer see her. However, they will know that she cannot die, for what she was will never be forgotten.

ROBERT B. IRWIN

1884-1951

Robert B. Irwin, who was well known as the long-time executive director of the

¹ *Social Service Review*, XXIV (1950), 414-15.

American Foundation for the Blind, died of a heart attack in Bremerton, Washington, last December. He had retired as director of the Foundation and was working on a history of work for the blind in America with the help of a Guggenheim Fellowship.

Robert Irwin became blind as a result of inflammatory rheumatism when he was five years old; and from the time he was seven years old until he graduated at the age of eighteen, he attended the Washington State School for the Blind. He later graduated from the University of Washington and took a Master's degree at Harvard. He then gradually learned how to make his great handicap serve the public welfare. He was a pioneer in advocating classes for blind children and children with defective vision in the public schools. As a result of his own experience, he hoped that blind children need not become "institutional children," and his plans to have these handicapped chil-

dren kept at home in a normal environment by means of public school classes was a great boon to these children and their families. He also worked out plans for the use of talking books, and he later became a consultant on work for the blind for the United Nations.

The *New York Times* recently called him "one of the country's outstanding organizers of special educational facilities and legislative measures and vocational rehabilitation for blind children and adults and the partially blind." As executive director of the American Foundation for Overseas Blind, in November, 1947, he received the Legion of Honor for "providing Braille materials for members of the French resistance forces who lost their sight during the German occupation." He was also connected with various organizations for the welfare of the blind, and his wise counsel will be greatly missed over a wide area.

LETTERS TO THE EDITOR

POLITICS AND SOCIAL WORKERS

To the Editor:

Social workers, as a rule, are not interested in clichés and catchwords. They deal with individuals, families, and human problems in the concrete. They are, of necessity, realistic in their treatment of situations. They demand, above all, honesty and sincerity of the organizations and leaders they serve and represent.

Power politics and selfish quarrels over patronage—jobs, contracts, spoils of office, what Tammany Hall calls “legitimate graft”—are of no direct concern to the social worker as such, though as a citizen he or she deplors such politics. In the election of 1948 some social workers and residents of Hull House voted for Norman Thomas, the Socialist leader, because neither Truman nor Dewey was deemed fit and worthy of the presidential office, not because they were Socialists in principle. The two-party system of the United States is obsolete and inadequate. At times there are no real differences between the two major parties, and the voters are aware of the fact. Habit, custom, routine, family traditions, motivate their choice; and morally this state of affairs is unhealthy and abnormal.

An intelligent realignment is overdue. We should strive, as citizens and realists, to restore principles and social significance to the party system. We need a conservative party, a liberal party, and a radical but constitutional party. Some day we may, under the impact of events and categorical imperatives, effect such a realignment.

Meantime, as citizens and social workers, we should pursue immediate and feasible objectives. Unsatisfactory as the situation is, some evils we tolerate are by no means inevitable. McCarthyism is one of them. The domination of corrupt lobbies is another. The purchase of nominations and elections by wealthy and unscrupulous men is a third.

Statutes “with teeth,” as we say, against corruption, shameless use of money by candidates, the sale of actual or supposed influence by ex-members of Congress or ex-administrators, the acceptance of expensive gifts from corporation executives, or go-betweens and hangers-on, are possible if there be the will to eradicate these blazing abuses. Where statutes are notoriously defective and ineffectual, that will has been lacking.

Again, our political campaigns are absurdly long-drawn-out, excessively repetitive, and wearisome. Millions are bored by them. To arouse or maintain interest, the politicians are forced to resort to mud-slinging, smearing, scandalmongering, name-calling, and billingsgate. Character assassination passes endurable limits. The malodorous bath turns many stomachs and causes decent men and women to shun politics and public office. This is largely preventable, and, if it is tolerated, the will to correct a grave abuse is again lacking. Cynicism and nihilism thrive in so poisoned an atmosphere. Democratic government is discredited and made a reproach and synonym for cheapness, vulgarity, hypocrisy, and abomination.

Whatever influence the social workers exert—and it is small indeed—should be used in behalf of decency and elementary morality. The same is true of the social scientists, for whom the machine politician has scant respect, no doubt, but who, perhaps, are not so futile and negligible as is often assumed in the shallow and yellow press.

The stars in their courses are not fighting for political sanity and morality, but that is not their job. It is ours. Are we doing our duty, playing our part well enough? The answer is No. It should be Yes.

VICTOR S. YARROS

La Jolla, California

BOOK REVIEWS

Men of Good Hope: A Story of American Progressives. By DANIEL AARON. New York: Oxford University Press, 1951. Pp. xiv + 329. \$4.00.

Daniel Aaron is at present director of the American Studies program at Smith College. In *Men of Good Hope* he has produced a volume which is most readable, scholarly, and valuable to social welfare workers, in that the numerous efforts of economists and philosophers of the past century and a half are herein discussed and something of their bearing upon the present picture in public and private social welfare activity can be discerned.

The precursors he selects are Emerson and Theodore Parker; the "prophetic agitators," Henry George, Edward Bellamy, Henry Demarest Lloyd, William Dean Howells, and Thorstein Veblen; the latter-day progressives, Theodore Roosevelt and Brooks Adams. For each of his "men of good hope" he has something to bring of the influences that shaped them, their contribution to the times, and their influence upon their successors.

Professor Aaron asserts that he is attempting to rehabilitate the progressive tradition. He begins by stating five propositions: (1) "Utopians believe in a 'potential reality' that is neither a dream nor a description of existing facts but a realistic possibility." (2) "It is the business of progressives and liberals to theorize as well as to act." (3) "If the sole aim of liberalism is immediate tangible results . . . then the visionary and the utopian are supernumerary." (4) "In some cases . . . a people as well as an individual must do justice cost what it may." (5) (This he quotes from Thoreau) "Liberalism or progressivism fails when it permits a respect for power to become an admiration for power."

In his later chapters on Theodore Roosevelt and Brooks Adams the author indicates their failure with respect to some of these principles. He calls them pragmatists and quotes Lloyd as saying of Theodore Roosevelt that he did "not think he has any ear at all for the new music of humanity . . . but he is probably an admirable instrument for the Americanization

of the world commercial and military." Lloyd becomes a specially interesting individual as Aaron describes him. Perhaps this is in part because of the close friendship between him and Jane Addams. Miss Addams and Anne Withington compiled a volume, *Man, the Social Creator*, from his manuscripts and fragments of published material which Professor Aaron calls the key to Lloyd's philosophy. Perhaps, too, this interest is due to the fact that among the group discussed in this book there is no one so completely identified with the developments of his city as was Lloyd with Chicago.

In a final chapter, "In Retrospect: 1912-1950," Franklin Roosevelt's contribution toward selling a new progressivism and undermining some of the economic and political superstitions of the past is discussed. The advent of the communist on the American scene is a new problem the earlier progressives did not have.

The author closes with this tribute to his group of progressives: "A true evaluation of America's great men would include not only the generals and statesmen and athletes, the builders of mouse traps and pipe lines, but our 'prophetic agitators,' excluded from the American pantheon, who devoted themselves to the unprofitable and thankless task of human betterment."

WALTER W. PETTIT

New York City

Social Work in Britain: A Supplementary Report on the Employment and Training of Social Workers. By EILEEN L. YOUNGHUSBAND. Fife: Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, 1951. Pp. viii + 256.

All readers of the original report on the employment and training of social workers in Great Britain¹ will be interested in this supplementary report, which covers the developments between 1945 and 1950. The Carnegie United Kingdom Trust, recognizing the interest

¹ See *Social Service Review*, XXII (1948), 264-65.

which the original report aroused, again engaged Miss Eileen L. Younghusband of the faculty of the London School of Economics, to bring up to date the material on the employment of social workers and the growth of facilities for their preparation. This Miss Younghusband has done so thoroughly that the supplementary report exceeds in length the original study. The conclusions reached carry a step further the recommendations of the earlier study in accordance with new developments in the field.

The Report is in two parts. Part I deals with the changes, problems, and present improved status of the employment of social workers in the public and voluntary services. Part II discusses the progress that has been made and the many problems involved in the preparation of social workers when demand exceeds supply. Several appendixes give the details of various types of training courses, an example of the organization and staffing of a local children's department, and a selected number of recent advertisements in the social work field of employment.

Changes in the field have far outstripped changes in training. Indeed, the author states that "in the short space of five years there have been such profound changes in the acceptance and employment of social workers as to render much of the material of the original report of historic interest only." Social work has become recognized as a profession and is an accepted part of the organization of State social services. The National Health Service employs almoners and psychiatric social workers in substantial numbers. Under the Children Act of 1948, whereby a universal child-care service is provided for the child who must leave his own home temporarily or permanently, boarding-out and children's officers are in great demand. As these and other public services have expanded, voluntary organizations have had to reduce their programs, chiefly for financial reasons. Co-operation with the public services, however, has perhaps been strengthened as a consequence.

Great Britain with the poor law abolished and with the universal health and child welfare statutes pointing the way toward the possibility of a co-ordinated system of social services, has a "desperate shortage" of social workers. The problems of employment and training are urgent if modern social work attitudes and concepts are to be introduced along with the new

personnel. Actually, the number of persons entering social work has included many mature persons as well as a higher proportion of men. The London School of Economics, for example, had an increase of men qualifying for the social science certificate, from 4.6 per cent of students in 1946 to 25 per cent in 1949. Social workers are found in positions of responsibility in certain of the statutory services. Almoners and psychiatric social workers, in the only part of the field which men have not entered, are in especially short supply.

The expanded employment of social workers is said to have "lengthened the ladder of promotion and improved salary scales." The latter are increasingly national salary scales in most public services, although the rate of compensation varies among the specialties. On the whole, however, salaries in the public services now compare favorably with those in other professions that employ women chiefly, such as nursing, teaching, and occupational therapy. Conditions of work are reported as less satisfactory than salaries; and that inequity well known in the United States, the requirement that the worker provide a car for use in agency work, is a special hardship in a country where automobiles are still a luxury. The voluntary organizations have been less able than the public services to maintain salary schedules. Personnel problems are familiar; e.g. "wastage" or loss of many trained women who marry and withdraw, and uneven distribution of social workers. As in the United States, workers want to remain in large cities and are often not available in rural areas and towns.

Three chapters (v-vii) give detailed and clear descriptions of some ten parts of the field in which social workers are employed and of the place of social workers within them. At the present time a serious problem arises from each part of the field regarding itself as a specialist and having its own professional association and own training arrangements and standards. Miss Younghusband points out the urgent need for agreement upon an "all-purpose or basic social worker" and discusses the interrelationship that exists between all specialties when the person and his whole situation become the center of concern. She pleads for social research as an aid in the formulation of common agreements. The hopeful element would seem to be the growing body of practitioners who have a consciousness of common bonds and are energetic in advancing their

respective aspects of the profession. It is to be hoped they will find the common basis for a profession in less time than it has required in the United States.

In Part II, Miss Younghusband discusses the perplexing problems of professional education but at this time preparation seems to represent mainly training. Although the number of university social science departments and the number of professional training bodies have both increased since 1945, the changes have been less spectacular than the changes of attitudes toward employment of social workers. A complication has arisen very naturally. As the demand for workers has increased, the various professional groups have set up their own training plans or have begun to bring pressure upon the local universities and colleges to help them with *ad hoc* courses. These may range from part-time lectures for employed workers to full-time study over a period of one year. The situation is described as follows:

Professional training is offered by a bewildering variety of institutions; these include various professional associations, a Government department, a local authority, an *ad hoc* college, employing bodies and various national associations. As each new form of social work has begun to demand trained workers skilled in its particular techniques, a specialized course has sooner or later come into existence to meet this demand.

Although there is a tacit assumption that those entering these courses will have been through the social science courses, only the Institute of Almoners, the Association of Family Case Workers, and the National Association of Girls' Clubs and Mixed Clubs require this preparation as the condition for specialized training. Since the demand in almost all areas so far exceeds the supply, a suggestion made in the report is that attention be given to more systematic and widespread in-service training and that "grant-aid" for education should be extended.

University education for social work is also in a confused state, although progress has been made in the incorporation of practical training into the university courses. The number of universities or university colleges which offer social science or social study courses in preparation for social work has increased since 1945 from seventeen to twenty-two; and the number of these which include practical work (field work) as an integral part of the course has increased from three to six. The author says that

"although certificates, diplomas and degrees which include practical work are the hard core of university education for social work, they are flanked on the one side by degrees in the social sciences which do not, so to speak, have an eye cocked towards the potential social worker, and on the other side by extra-mural lecture courses and diplomas which are often taken by those who are already in jobs in the social work field of employment." Even in the case of the social science departments which include practical work, there is no agreement as to whether it is general education in social studies they are offering, or a preprofessional course, preparation for social work, or the first stage of actual training for social work.

The essential problem seems to be that in the field, the social workers in the various professional associations have come to no agreement upon what is the basic skill or skills required and upon what knowledge these should rest. The American emphasis upon *relationship* is questioned by some critics as "not British." Yet apparently British social workers are well aware of the need for disciplining the worker to use his knowledge with skill. At present the dilemma would seem to be the familiar struggle between the academic and the professional disciplines to be co-operative but distinct. When the professional group is not united on its aims, how much more difficult is the planning of university courses that will prepare for an undefined field. The British social workers' dilemma at this time would seem to be to maintain their status with the universities while at the same time they try to identify what in their practice makes them claim to be a profession. They are hampered, apparently, by a fear that "know-how" will be an end in itself and will not be based upon "know-why"; and they look to the social science departments to supply the latter when, in this reviewer's opinion, the leadership in bridging the gap must come from those social workers who are both scholars and practitioners. The development of the sciences upon which any profession rests, whether they be the natural or the social sciences, is a separate or parallel development. To be sure the professions will improve as the basic sciences improve, but at any moment a profession must deal with the realities of a service, however imperfect; to do this it must make use of what is already known. And it is this use of social science material in the reality of a service which transmutes it into something unique

in itself which then constitutes professional knowledge.

The Report enlarges upon the recommendation made in the earlier report, that a School of Applied Social Studies should be established as a unit within a university. Its aims would be "to stimulate both education and personal integration, and [would be] related to the changing needs of human nature." The main subjects of study proposed are dynamic psychology, sociology, ethics, applied economics, and social administration. Their consideration might be unified by focusing them upon such "core subjects" as the family, structure of communities, or the place of work in society. Field work would have an important place in the curriculum and other specialized subject matter might be included. Research would also be a main purpose of the school. Other proposals, such as lengthening and improving present courses, shorter full-time courses of a lower academic standard rather like teacher training courses, and part-time and in-service training courses to help those on the job, are also included. But the most significant recommendation is for an experimental School of Applied Social Sciences where a faculty with high qualifications could work as a team in the selection of courses and lecturers and where they could plan the course as a coherent whole and "be free to build up its own tradition." If there is any one lesson that might be learned from American social work education, it is that this kind of organization which makes possible social work leadership within the university is necessary for professional development. It is to be hoped such a step will soon be taken in Great Britain.

ARLIEN JOHNSON

University of Southern California
Los Angeles

White Collar: The American Middle Classes. By C. WRIGHT MILLS. New York: Oxford University Press, 1951. Pp. xx+378. \$5.00.

This is a lengthy and eloquent essay, without footnotes, on the "new middle classes," their occupational worlds, their styles of life, and their ways of power. The members of these classes are described as handlers of people and symbols, as contrasted with the waged workers who handle things; and it is argued that more

than half of the employed section of the labor force in the United States today are engaged in servicing, distributing, and co-ordinating, and less than half in extraction and production. The new middle classes are also contrasted with the old middle classes in that their occupations are based on employment rather than on property.

In its treatment of this trend this book is often facile and superficial. For example, in discussing the "personality market," it assumes that the cultivation of tact, self-control, and affability, and the nonexpression of one's feelings, involve a kind of insincerity. If this scale of judgment had been applied to social work—on which he has practically nothing to say—the author could equally well have condemned as fundamentally insincere a case worker's acceptance of a client's attitudes. What he fails to observe is that the cult of "personality," in the sense of an impersonal and tolerant urbanity and courtesy, did not begin with the success literature of the Dale Carnegie school but has long been a characteristic virtue of our civilization: all that has happened is that it has come to be consciously cultivated by a wider public.

Besides its lack of historical depth, this book lacks geographical breadth. It cites European social philosophers, yet the facts which it gathers and interprets are exclusively American. Still more striking is its lack of social breadth. It distinguishes between the older professions, which were "liberal" in the sense of being self-employed, and the newer professions, whose members are salaried employees competitively seeking a career by progressing from being supervised to supervising others; yet it fails to elucidate the extent to which the new professions are professions at all, it studies only a small part of the gamut of new professions, and it consequently fails to touch on the problems of an emergent social work profession.

One is forced to the conclusion that the facts of life are too complex to be adequately explained by Professor Mills's brand of Marxism.

W. HARDY WICKWAR

Plainsboro, New Jersey

Ayrshire: Vol. I of the Third Statistical Account of Scotland, edited by JOHN STRAWHORN and WILLIAM BOYD. Edinburgh: Oliver & Boyd, 1951. Published in U.S.A. by

Hafner Publishing Co., Inc., 31 E. Tenth St., New York 3. Pp. xvii+886. Price of Canadian ed., \$5.25.

The Scots are noted for their sense of tradition and also for thoroughness and tenacity in performance. This handsome volume, which presents the Scottish way of life, is a tribute to all these characteristics. It is also a blueprint for the conduct of a social and economic survey which, while always under sound academic direction, combines the disciplines of social research with the arts of community organization.

The first Statistical Account, in twenty-one volumes, was published at the end of the eighteenth century. It was warmly praised by Malthus, who wrote that it exhibited "a better picture of the internal state of the country than has yet been presented to the world." It was famous for its wide interpretation of the word "statistical" as being "...an enquiry into the state of a country, for the purpose of ascertaining the quantum of happiness enjoyed by its inhabitants and the means of its future improvement." It was compiled largely by the parish ministers and is a delightful record, intimate and yet accurate, of contemporary life and is of great importance to students of social life. The second Statistical Account was published in 1834 and was more narrowly statistical but shows Scotland at the point of transition into an industrial nation. The third Statistical Account was promoted by the Scottish Council of Social Service in 1946 and, if it lives up to the standards achieved in this volume, will be a worthy successor to its fore-runners.

The first part of the book is a clearly written, excellently organized account of the essential features of the County of Ayr. It shows clearly the interaction of climate, geography, industry, communications, population, and public services in the twentieth century. Many Americans will find this country of special interest, for it is the first land they will see in Great Britain if they travel by air and land at the great airport of Prestwick. It is the home of the famous breed of dairy cattle, a major center of coal mining, and a manufacturing area with an astonishing variety of products from luxury carpets and rich lace to soap and patent fire-lighters. Here can be seen the twentieth century's complex structure of publicly operated services in sufficient detail to be typical of the

growth of these services throughout Great Britain. It is perhaps not well enough known in the United States that Scotland has a very considerable measure of autonomy, and in this book can be found a full and accurate account of the health, welfare, and education services which are an essential part of modern Scottish life. The whole of Part I of the book, while having a unity of presentation provided by a single author, is well stocked with authoritative material from many sources and richly endowed with apt tables of statistics, clear diagrams, and useful line drawings.

The second part of the book represents a major achievement in method of social study. By a laborious process of community organization, every local unit in the county was involved in the creation of local citizen groups for self-study. Their accounts of their own social conditions at the mid-twentieth century have been welded into a single document of great significance by Dr. Boyd. His interpretations of the raw material, which came in from every parish, village, and town in the county, were submitted in draft not merely to his co-editor but to the groups from which the material came. He has managed to preserve much of the local flavor of the material, and there are many intimate and delightful sidelights on manners and morals in Scotland at the mid-century. Publication of this account has already stirred up lively discussion in Ayrshire and provided a welcome incentive to the formation of neighborhood clubs and local community associations. In this way, this research project, begun for reasons of study and the discovery of knowledge, has already led to social action at the grass roots. This close interaction between research and community organization deserves the particular attention of the student.

The book is remarkably well produced, and its price, well below production cost, is further inducement to buy in these times when the price of everything seems to rise overnight.

JOHN S. MORGAN

*School of Social Work
University of Toronto*

Student Personnel Work in College. By C. GILBERT WRENN. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1951. Pp. ix+589. \$4.75.

Personnel services to college students have increased in number and extent with the years.

The developments of individual student personnel services in colleges have been haphazard in many instances and were introduced, as isolated functions, as particular student needs were felt. The literature dealing with the personnel services was of much the same sort. Though much was written about each particular service, such as admissions, registration, job placement, orientation, and counseling, there have been only meager attempts heretofore to put into one publication all that is known about the entire field of college personnel work. To attempt such a task would seem to be more ambitious than practical. Dr. Wrenn has done this, however, with no little degree of success.

The book is divided into five parts with an extensive and very useful appendix. Part One presents the basis of student personnel work along with a general discussion of the typical organizations, and administrative patterns, for carrying the programs on effectively. The second part is devoted solely to counseling of students. The third part, written entirely by Professor Ruth Strong of Teachers College, Columbia University, deals with group experiences, which are derived through student activities, orientation of new students, and through college housing and dining facilities. Part Four of the book describes health services to students and the practices of providing financial aid and part-time and full-time job placement services. The final part is devoted to areas of general institutional administration of students and presents admissions and registration practices, student disciplinary policies, and research in student personnel work along with evaluating the outcomes of the total program.

It is quite apparent from the foregoing items of content that this publication has considerable breadth. One's first reaction is a question as to whether or not a book so conceived can adequately consider deeply enough any one topic to justify itself in any way, other than by providing a most superficial over-view of what one author views as all activities which have come to be considered as functions now supervised by a dean of students in the typical American college. As one reads this book, however, one cannot fail to be impressed by the extent to which the author, and his associate in certain sections of the book, give evidence of searching insights into the details of history and current practices in the various specific phases of student personnel work. The volume has depth as well as breadth.

At a time when there is much discussion concerning "directive" and "non-directive" counseling methods, to one or the other of which personnel workers are supposed to adhere, one naturally anticipates with especial concern which "school" the author follows and how he treats the other concept of counseling. Dr. Wrenn seems eclectic in his counseling method and perhaps nearer to sound practice but will not therefore please enthusiasts for any particular theory.

The publication, in the main, is of special interest to administrative officers and personnel specialists in institutions of higher learning. It should be of interest too to those in secondary schools who deal with personnel problems and to others outside the field of education who are responsible for helping individuals to help themselves toward better adjustment to life. The volume most certainly aids the field of college personnel work to "come of age" and by so doing advances personnel services in other settings.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

University of Chicago

The Public Health Nurse and Her Patient. By RUTH GILBERT, R.N. Rev. ed. Published for the Commonwealth Fund by the Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Mass., 1951. Pp. v+348. \$3.75.

The first edition of this book was received enthusiastically by public health nurses for they found it exceedingly helpful. The revised edition will undoubtedly meet with the same response.

The second edition is a revision in both organization and content. It is perhaps significant that the chapter entitled "Teaching Health" is now placed at the beginning, while the chapter which deals with the nursing care of the sick appears toward the end of the book.

Newer concepts in mental hygiene, guidance, and counseling as they relate to nurse-patient relationships have been incorporated in the discussion of the teaching function of the public health nurse. While it is made clear that the maternity period cannot be disassociated from the mother's entire health picture, certain problems related particularly to childbearing are set forth with suggestions as to the role of the nurse in helping mothers meet this expe-

rience in terms of their own capacities. The questions which parents ask concerning their infants and young children are presented realistically. Considerable material dealing with child growth and development is included in the chapter entitled "The Child in His Family," and the author indicates that, only through an understanding of the developmental process, can the nurse help parents solve the problems which are involved in child care.

The author shows clearly how a broad understanding of human behavior makes teaching individuals and groups more effective and satisfying; and the principles of mental hygiene are presented with skilful adaptations to the field of public health nursing. Some of the newer methods of group procedure are advanced as a basis for the successful conduct of parents' classes and other educational activities.

The problems involved in the care of acutely ill people in their homes and of those with long-term illness are discussed at some length, and the importance of the nurse's understanding the emotional aspects of illness and the common reactions of sick people is emphasized. The function of the public health nurse in helping families where a member is mentally deficient or mentally ill is well interpreted.

In the last chapter the relationships of the public health nurse to other nurses within and without the agency and to workers in other professions are considered. The nurse-supervisor relationship is dealt with helpfully. Here, as throughout the entire book, the author's intimate knowledge of the situations and problems which public health nurses attempt to meet is evidenced in the selection and generous use of case materials.

MARY M. DUNLAP

University of Chicago

A Socialist's Faith. By NORMAN THOMAS. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1951. Pp. x+321. \$4.00.

The Rev. Norman Thomas has been called by opponents, non-Socialists, "the conscience of America." Today he is held in high esteem by conservatives and defenders of the economic order that he has criticized and fought for forty years. He has known unpopularity and hostility in his career as propagandist of socialism—constitutional, gradual, evolutionary socialism.

What has changed the attitude toward him of the champions of the present system? Norman Thomas has certainly not changed. Socialism is not exactly popular with the press, the politicians, or organized and corporate business. It is official Russian communism that has effected the transformation. By contrast, Mr. Thomas is today an angel of light and a pillar of legalism and conservatism. His unsparing condemnation of the Kremlin and its strategy and tactics has made him a welcome and well-paid contributor to newspapers and magazines that formerly would have ignored him completely or treated him as a subversive, un-American agitator.

Mr. Thomas has remained a Socialist, and the Luce-inspired discoveries of a permanent revolution, a redeemed and purified capitalism, impress him not. The emasculation of the Wagner Labor Relations act by the surgeons of the Taft-Hartley school, the recent recrudescence of violence on the Southern textile centers, the avoidable delays in litigation at the expense of the trade-union treasuries, such phenomena as these leave Mr. Thomas convinced that radical changes in the industrial system are both necessary and desirable. He is no absolutist, no dogmatist, no fanatical Marxist, however. He recognizes that socialism is no panacea and that it can be autocratic or totalitarian if great care is not taken to preserve essential democracy and the freedoms enjoyed by individuals and groups, sects and parties, under our constitutions. He even admits the need of some competition, some commercial incentives, in the socialist order.

Mr. Thomas has many enemies in the Socialist party, which is now badly split. His isolationist views on the eve of the second World War crippled the party he is supposed to lead. He is charged by some with opportunism; by others with heresy and surrender to capitalism. He acts on the principle of Ibsen's Dr. Stockman—"the strongest man is he who stands alone." He is pragmatic and naturally moderate. He is disposed to abandon the futile policy of nominating presidential and vice-presidential candidates and carrying on costly national campaigns, foredoomed to failure, and to devote time and money henceforth to planned educational work—not in the sense of infiltration and "boring from within," but in the sense of candid and above-board advocacy of democratic socialism.

The book is no apology and no confession, and little of it deals with the author's personal life and personal anxieties and struggles. The

emphasis is on American socialism in theory and practice.

VICTOR S. YARROS

La Jolla, California

Government Project. By EDWARD C. BANFIELD.
Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1951. Pp. 272.
\$3.50.

Government Project is the story of Casa Grande, a co-operative farm established by the Farm Security Administration in the Arizona desert. It records six years (1937-43) of struggle by some fifty families, with dissension within their own ranks, against the vicissitudes of the desert soil and climate and against a hostile public opinion, in the face of various other difficulties.

The author was associated with the FSA during most of this period, but he had no ax to grind. He simply tried to understand the Casa Grande people, both the settlers and the officials, "not in terms of some doctrine (not in terms of culture, or psychoanalysis, or economic determinism, or behaviorism!) but as sensitive and perceptive people generally try to understand other people." He tells his unpretentious story admirably, making the reader forget the careful research in agency files, newspapers, and personal interviews behind his chronicle.

This book should be of interest as a contribution to our understanding of one of the most controversial relief and rehabilitation experiments of the New Deal period. We are given a convincing and authoritative description of the FSA activities on all levels and of the reactions of the project people to their failure to make a living during the depression. Social workers in particular will appreciate the author's interpretation of the ways in which the project people, both as individuals and as members of a group, showed their resentment of their status as government wards.

Second, there is much to be learned about the multiple functions of the social worker-home economist in such a setting. It so happened that this worker apparently was the most universally respected and liked person on the project staff, even though her attitude toward the two major factions among the settlers reflected the views of the local FSA representatives rather too closely.

On a more general level, social workers might wish to take issue with the somewhat disparag-

ing opinion the author has about the organization of community activities which the regional officials of the FSA envisaged as a means of creating a better and more democratic morale among the settlers. It is true that the urban liberals in the FSA (in this case they happened to be sociologists, economists, ex-investment bankers rather than social workers) in retrospect appear rather naïve in their enthusiasm for community activities as a panacea for all the ills of the project, such as dissatisfaction with the local manager, low wages, and, perhaps, "power hunger" of a few individuals. In discounting the strain of year-round proximity, the longing for association with the world outside, and, last but not least, the simple desire to enjoy the pleasant homes in their leisure hours, the FSA officials evidently showed lack of insight in the manner of living which the co-operative settlement imposed upon these families used to isolated farms, shacks, or tents. At the same time it must not be forgotten that, while community organization as our and the author's world knows it, may be the product of a complex urban society, many of these rural families had cheerful recollections of pie suppers, barn raisings, or joint communal feeds at harvest time, so that group activities were not altogether alien to them. It is true, too, that in Casa Grande most activities from Sunday School to Saturday-night dances did not survive the first year's wave of enthusiasm. Yet, without a full-time staff to keep a program going on the basis of changing interests and needs and without leaders in their own ranks, the people on the farm did not do so much worse than other communities where it is taken for granted that common needs can be met by joint action. The author's account makes the reader see that even a moderately successful program for children and adolescents was needed and could have made a real contribution to the morale of the project.

In the concluding chapter the author analyzes the various factors leading to the sudden collapse of the enterprise at the very time that its economic future appeared to be firmly established. There seems to be no blame attached to any group of people or any particular mistakes in the scheme itself, but instead the author skillfully reviews the developments of the experiment in social and economic organization within the framework of current social thinking. If anything, the author's objectivity goes too far, the arguments and explanations are so carefully balanced against each other that we might wish

for some more definite clues as to the reasons for the project's failure, for some more clear-cut lessons to be applied perhaps in future ventures of this sort in the less-favored regions of the United States and the world at large.

GITTA U. MEIER

Chicago

Creative Group Living in a Children's Institution: A Symposium. Edited by SUSANNE SCHULZE. New York: Association Press, 1951. Pp. x+224. \$5.00.

It has been estimated that over 250,000 children live in institutions such as orphanages, children's homes, and training schools in this country. These children are, in a special sense, the children of the community, since the community through taxes and gifts largely supports them and controls the conditions under which they grow up. These children in institutions are no longer half-starved, or herded in gloomy corridors and dormitories, or dressed alike in drab uniforms. Actually, in most institutions they are given very good care, and at such holidays as Christmas they are often given far too many toys and parties for their own good. Yet many of these children can still be called "deprived," though they live in pretty cottages, eat adequate, well-balanced meals, and go to the movies every Saturday night. They are "deprived" because numbers of well-meaning people—members of boards and advisory committees, executives, cottage mothers—do not understand how to help children, separated from their natural families and burdened with the fears and insecurities of all such children, to live creatively in groups.

This *Symposium* goes a long way in offering guidance to those who wish to bring constructive living to children in the institutions they control, manage, and staff. Put into practice, the principles set forth in *Creative Group Living in a Children's Institution* should mean a new way of life for many children. In these chapters the inner significance of group life is studied, not merely the outer shell of routines and practices.

A symposium is sometimes a most uninteresting kind of book, too often merely a series of articles that tend to be uneven in quality, repetitious, and confused as to point of view. But this volume is an outstanding exception. Each of the fourteen chapters is interesting and valuable in its own right, and the whole is remark-

ably consistent in tone and emphasis. Most of the conventional topics about institutional management are covered. There are chapters on "What It Means To Be a Board Member," on "Administration," on "Religion," on "House Parents," on "Selective Intake and Placement," on "The Institution and the Community." There are also chapters on subjects not ordinarily included. In one important chapter, "The Institution as a Laboratory of Interracial Group Living" is discussed. Other chapters treat "The Art of Group Composition," "Social Climate," and "Research in an Institutional Setting."

All the chapters are bound together by what one could call the remarkable "climate" of the book. In her essay on this subject Eva Burmeister says: "A large number of things, big and small, go into the making of a good climate. It is not easy to achieve but it is important to have. . . . In fact, it is the most important test of the effectiveness of a program." Good examples of institution climate are given and ways suggested in which good climate can be achieved. The keynote of what she means by "climate" is probably found in her last sentence, "It is up to us [institutions] to adapt, expand and extend ourselves, to be flexible, to keep learning, to change plans or equipment or our traditionally set ways of doing things in order to meet best the needs of the children in our care."

Is it not the fact that *live* children, with the special problems of the "foster-child," set the standard as to what living in institutions should be, that finally determines its climate? Throughout this symposium one feels that these children and their problems are the primary concern of all the writers. Even in the chapter on "Religion," a chapter which can so easily be too general to be very useful, we read: "Separation from their parents, with frequent feelings of being unloved and unwanted, intensifies for children in institutions the usual problems of relationship with which children in their own homes must deal. The love life of children in institutions is disturbed. They face, in a special way, problems which are essentially religious." And the author then indicates how the religious program in an institution can help these children with their particular problems.

The authors of this readable volume approach children and their institutional experiences with the wisdom that comes from a combination of professional understanding and practical experience, with emphasis on the ex-

perience. The fourteen contributors to the book include a board member, five executives of institutions, a consulting psychiatrist, a director of group work, a director of cottage parents, a director of social service in an institution, a minister, and three professors in schools of social work. Dr. Schulze has done an excellent job of editing. The language of the fourteen authors is remarkably consistent. It does not talk down and yet it is not technical in a cumbersome manner. It says a great deal but is not wordy. Many of the chapters are quite brief and pack the essence of the subject into a dozen pages. But primarily this is a book in which living children with living problems remain for all the writers the center and the measure of the methods under discussion. It is a very welcome addition to the scanty and too often rather dull literature of professional child welfare. A useful reading list is appended.

ETHEL VERRY

Chicago Child Care Society

The Burden of Diseases in the United States. By ALFRED E. COHN and CLAIRE LINGG. New York: Oxford University Press, 1950. Pp. viii+129. Bibliography, no index, 5 charts in color in slip case. \$10.00.

This book is mainly concerned with an account of the changes in the composition of the population of the United States from 1900 to 1940 with some extrapolations to 1961, with the changes in the causes of death as they appear in the total population and in age groups within it, and with analyses of the meager morbidity data, including those on mental illness, now available for the population of this country. A substantial section of the book is given over to tracing the changes in the morbidity rates from specified diseases during the first decades of the twentieth century as these rates manifest themselves in the several age groups. The treatment of the subject is exclusively statistical.

The term "burden" is used to express only the actual volume of disease as that is implied by deaths and as it has been measured in sickness surveys. The burden of disease arising from the loss of responsible family members, from economic loss in ability to work, from the outlays for the care of the sick, and from the loss of other social values have not come within the scope of this study. Nor has "sickness" been rigorously defined.

The virtual disappearance of many of the infectious diseases and the marked decline in others are considered at length as is the mortality from the degenerative diseases and from those of less well-established etiologies. Comparatively few definitive statements, the authors found, could be made about the basic nature or probable course in the future of several numerically weighty diseases, since so much remains to be learned about their causes and their interrelations. The authors' treatment of these subjects, though somewhat ruminative, is wise and cautious. There emerges a concept of an appropriate time of death and a natural way to die. "It has become the obvious course to many persons . . . to think of life in terms of the succession of injuries to which it is liable, and to consider such hygienic rearrangements as can be instituted from time to time to save it from them."

References are made to public health programs under public and voluntary auspices, with an occasional acerb comment, as when the authors remark, "We tend to advertise and to back specified diseases as if they were race horses, each special group of physicians and their lay supporters betting on his own particular horse."

While there are many references to the statistical problems inherent in the description and analysis of diseases and health conditions of given populations and over spans of years when rapid changes are occurring, one would not think of this book as a systematic treatment of those technical statistical problems.

Three of the five color charts in the slip case are portrayals of the death rates per 100,000 population from sixteen selected causes for ten age groups in the United States in 1940, each sex, for white and nonwhite, and for the five decennial census years, 1900, 1910, 1920, 1930, and 1940. A fourth chart gives these same rates for forty-two countries at various times ranging from 1930 (Czechoslovakia) to 1944 (Brazil). The fifth chart shows these same rates in ten countries for six age groups for a recent year (1945-1948) with corresponding data, in some instances, for an earlier year. These are very handsome charts but require careful study. By reason of the reader's having to keep sixteen colors in mind, the graphic quality of the charting is somewhat obscured, except for the red columns signifying the cardiac diseases and those of the circulatory system. The choice of this most conspicuous color for their own horse

which has the dubious distinction of being the leading cause of death, can be forgiven in these authors who have contributed so much to the systematic study and reporting of the cardiac diseases.

NEVA R. DEARDORFF

*The Health Insurance Plan
of Greater New York*

Fight against Fears: A Very Personal Account of a Woman's Psychoanalysis. By LUCY FREEMAN. Introduction by DR. GEORGE S. STEVENSON. New York: Crown Publishers, Inc., 1951. Pp. 332. \$3.75.

As this recountal unfolds, the author's purpose, that of sharing an experience through which she was helped in order to help others, is manifested steadfastly, thus marking the work as a professional contribution.

Social case work educators will value this book in their teaching for several reasons. We have access to much material in which the patient is seen through the eyes of the therapist. This account affords a view of a therapist and of a helping process from the vantage point of the patient, and, as such, it abounds in learnings which on the whole support our observations of what this kind of therapeutic process has seemed to mean to individuals who can make productive use of it. Certain elements in the psychiatrist-patient relationship, which had vital meaning for the patient, emerge in bold relief. While the psychoanalytic treatment situation differs appreciably from that of social case work, there are common elements in a helping process; and it is not surprising that certain of those most meaningful to this patient are not unique to psychoanalysis, notably: the hurt and troubled individual needs a fair hearing in which he is tendered a response which is not wholly dispassionate but at times compassionate, a response which furthermore is now and again noncommittal but often committal; the therapist's continuous adaptation of the tempo and nature of his activity to the needs and capacities of the recipient of his help; and finally the enduring trust proffered by the therapist which begets belief in self and trust in others. This discerning trust in the ultimate dependability of this patient permitted him to meet dependency freely, to affirm the patient's self-dependence and expectantly but patiently to await growth.

This book is more than a book. It is an experience which engages the readers' emotions deeply. The reader is afforded an opportunity to feel with a patient as she undergoes change in feeling, thinking and doing. There comes alive that which it is difficult to teach; namely, that help which demands change cannot be either primarily intellectual or wholly a process by which the emotions are socialized. It is, instead, a process through which the emotions and intellect interplay and progressively are integrated. The author imparts this because she has not written about her experience abstractly. Instead, she has in some measure relived the experience in vivid language which truly communicates. Few patients could have written with such artistry. It is a fortunate circumstance that a writer with a command of language disciplined for communication underwent this experience and had the courage to distill it for others. Those professions concerned with helping and healing people are thrice indebted to Lucy Freeman: first, for her competent interpretation of our work in her capacity as news reporter for the *New York Times* of activities and developments in the mental health and welfare fields; second, for seeking help through which her writing is enhanced through deepened understanding of what it means to be helped and healed, and, finally, for generously sharing her fight against fears. Social work educators will wish to acknowledge their indebtedness also to Dr. George S. Stevenson for the brief but clear statement of the aims of psychoanalysis delineated in the Introduction.

CHARLOTTE TOWLE

University of Chicago

Adventure in Mental Health: Psychiatric Social Work with the Armed Forces in World War II. Edited by HENRY S. MAAS. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951. Pp. 334. \$4.50.

This book, a symposium by sixteen different authors, all of whom were engaged in some phase of military psychiatric social work in World War II, was undertaken to report on the development of military psychiatric social services during a critical period of history. However, its most important purpose, according to its editor, "... is to stimulate a reappraisal of current objectives and practices in the two fields which social work functions in our society relate

to each other—mental health and social welfare." The partial resolution of certain fundamental professional problems within the military setting, the editor believes, will have implications for the whole field of social welfare. One of the most basic and far-reaching of the questions to which answers are sought is formulated by Miss Charlotte Towle in the preface. "I have been rather puzzled," she writes, "as to just how social case work would be fashioned and affected in a setting in which the social services are wanted not primarily for the welfare of the individual, as is the custom in the traditional settings in which we have worked. Instead, in industry and the military service it has seemed to me that it was wanted for the welfare of the host agency. What did this do to the confidential nature of the relationship? What did it do to the whole area of orienting treatment to diagnosis, that is of meeting the needs of the individual rather than the needs of the service?"

To clarify the nature of military psychiatric social work in all its diversity, the first part of the book includes articles by nine writers who describe professional practice in the Air Force, with a combat division, in a neuropsychiatric hospital, in a convalescent hospital, in disciplinary barracks, with the Women's Reserve of the United States Coast Guard, in a Navy Hospital, and with the American Red Cross in military hospitals. Most of the articles include, in addition to a discussion of case work practice, some discussion of planning, organizing, interpreting, staffing, evaluating and training for social work in the various settings. The problems encountered and dealt with were those which social work finds on all fronts, but they are problems perhaps especially crucial and pressing in the face of large scale emergencies such as a war and a depression: adapting methods to new needs and conditions, working under pressures of time and limited personnel. The lessons learned in this military emergency seem to reinforce and amplify what has been learned by social work in providing other emergency services, under varying kinds of pressures: relief services, refugee services, disaster services, services in courts and penal institutions. Depicted again and again in these articles is the remarkable flexibility and adaptability of professional practice. Here is additional testing and validation of many approaches which are being widely adopted throughout the field of social work: the use of case aids and volunteers, in-service training, modification of traditional recording prac-

tices, the use of group techniques, greater focus and partialization, setting of limited goals, sharpening of diagnostic skills. This book adds the experience of military social work to the growing store of experience in all these areas, as well as in the area of prevention, which is likewise a profession-wide concern.

In Part II of the book are seven articles describing the history of the planning phase of military psychiatric social work at the top level, depicting the role of professional organizations (with particular emphasis on the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers and the American Red Cross), in participating in the military emergency. It gives an excellent sense of the vast scope of planning at the national level, of the intricate problems of co-ordination, and of the sound groundwork which today remains as a basis for continuing development and expansion if the need arises. The latter is described in two articles, one on the current status of military social work in the Army and the other on past and current activities in Selective Service.

The concluding chapters (Part III of the volume) undertake to summarize the implications of the material presented throughout the book for current civilian practice and for mental health education and research. Emphasis is on the similarities between military and civilian social work; and it is made clear that in this emergency, as in all major emergencies, diversification of practice, new applications, and greater flexibility have been fostered. Thus, wartime social work practice both in military and in certain civilian settings forged ahead rapidly, and the new experiences and data must now be incorporated and integrated into the general stream of professional practice. This volume makes a contribution to such integration.

One cannot but be disappointed, however, that Miss Towle's significant question was never dealt with directly. In an effort to identify and elaborate the similarities between social work in military and in civilian settings, the essential differences seem to have been overlooked, and the implication is either that they do not exist, or that they are unimportant. One is still left with the important and inescapable question of how such a concept as the following might influence practice: "The Social Worker has to come to terms with the fact that the mission and needs of the Army are primary, and that the needs of the patient as an individual can be appraised and met only with reference to the

Army's needs." Efforts made to identify this as merely the familiar conflict between responsibilities to client and to community and to resolve it in the usual manner by reconciliation of individual and community needs seem to press a parallel which is questionable. Civilian community needs reflect and arise out of needs of individuals. Military needs arise out of conflict and the effort to achieve victory. In war, neither individual needs nor needs of the military community (if we mean the needs of the men involved) are the primary objective. The needs of the military (whatever is necessary to attain military objectives) take precedence. The military social worker, as a part of the military structure, is committed to the primacy of military objectives. As a member of the social work profession, he is committed to the primacy of individual welfare as his ultimate objective. That this provides no special problem for the authors of this volume is interesting and, perhaps, should be reassuring. The identifications of the military psychiatric social workers seem to have been so predominantly with the professional role that they were able to operate without any conflict. Certainly this book makes clear that in many instances the welfare of the individual and military needs did coincide. Social workers remained client-oriented, their practice and service shaped by goals of individual welfare within the realistic limits set by time, professional skill, case loads, and military demands. These latter were perceived by the military social worker largely in terms of unalterable reality demands. He did not seem to identify with them any more than a social worker in any setting identifies with or assumes responsibility for a harsh or destructive reality. The absence of conflict seems to be related to the ability of the social worker in the military setting to see military needs, whenever they do not coincide with individual needs, as a reality to which worker and client alike are subjected. In this way, he may avoid coming to grips with the problem of reconciling agency goals and professional goals, a necessity for the civilian social worker whose practice must be shaped by both and who must implement both.

In spite of certain shortcomings, the book presents excellent evidence of the contribution which social work can make to human welfare in times of disaster, whether the disaster be created by man or by nature. It also provides evidence of the essential unity of the profession, and demonstrates that its controlling purposes

and its basic processes are identifiable and appropriate in varied military settings as well as in the traditional agency settings.

This symposium will prove interesting and useful to social work practitioners, supervisors, administrators and teachers in two important respects. First, it provides detailed description of the application of generic principles throughout a wide range of settings, problems, and personalities. Second, although it does not answer the important problem of the influence of auspices on goals and process, it provides certain data which should be taken into account by those who struggle with that question.

LYNDELL SCOTT

University of Chicago

Near Eastern Culture and Society: A Symposium on the Meeting of East and West. Edited by T. CUYLER YOUNG. Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1951. Pp. x+250. \$4.00.

Papers presented by eleven scholars at the Princeton bicentennial in 1947 are here reproduced in revised form in the Princeton series of oriental studies. The first part deals with progress and prospect in Islamic studies on the part of Western scholars, with special attention to art, literature, religion, and the history of science. The second part deals with current problems of Iran, Turkey, and the Arab states, under the two headings of interaction of Islamic and Western thought, and national and international relations.

Any such book as this is bound to be a useful addition to the reading of one who has reason for being concerned with the Near and Middle East. Unfortunately, however, its approach is almost wholly literary and political. It deals with culture in the old-fashioned sense, with none of the broad approach to culture that is typical of the social sciences at their best. Its concept of Islamic studies does not seem to extend to the study of the social organization and social problems of the Middle East. Nor does its range of current problems extend to the practical problem of how to develop services capable of raising people's living standards. It begins with the customary salute to "the increased responsibilities thrust upon the United States" and "the importance of understanding the people of the Near East"; but in actual fact it contributes remarkably little to the construc-

tive discharge of those responsibilities or to the understanding of the reasons why a region which led the whole world in the path of civilization for five thousand years is now considered to be one of the world's "underdeveloped areas."

W. HARDY WICKWAR

Plainsboro, New Jersey

Public Relations and American Democracy. By J. A. R. PIMLOTT. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1951. Pp.xi+265. \$4.00.

"Public relations" is a relatively new phrase, and it is supposed by many newspaper-readers to denote a new "science," with psychology as perhaps the principal ingredient, and a new art. Governments, corporations, utilities, labor unions severally maintain public-relations departments. Just what is the function of these, and how well is that function discharged? What benefit, if any, does "the public" derive from it?

A truly impartial and scientific study of "the new science," or art, is devoutly to be desired. The volume under notice, written by an English author and social historian who has traveled in this country, observed our ways, and spent a year on research for the book, is unquestionably impartial and illuminating as far as it goes. It is of necessity largely introductory.

The author presents the interesting facts and figures of public relations. They are striking enough. Then he discusses the so-called "philosophy of public relations"—the motives and reasons that have called the new science, or art, into being, the scope of its activities, the meth-

ods and the language it employs, the success it claims or has admittedly achieved.

Young and crude as it is, it has already learned a good deal from its mistakes. Many equate public relations with propaganda of the obnoxious type, and the charge is not unfair. There are such things as special pleading, half-truth, even distortion in the matter prepared and circulated by public relations agencies, public and private. There is some cant and hypocrisy, too. But there is also much-needed and useful work, since in a democracy like ours the public feels that it is entitled to adequate information and explanation of certain policies and measures. Strikes, lockouts, price increases, legislation proposed, law enacted but little understood and often attacked in the press, suits instituted, diplomatic moves—such occurrences have to be justified, and there are two or more sides to every social question.

There is a national association of public-relations specialists, and they have problems of their own, it seems. They are viewed with suspicion and skepticism, and they resent this adverse attitude and ask what is wrong with them. The answer is simple. Their pretensions are often ridiculous and fantastic, and the truth, also, is not always in them. More honesty and becoming modesty would disarm distrust. Publicity is not another name for public relations and publicity is not another name for fakes and sophistry.

Public relations experts should read and ponder the revealing book under notice and take its elementary moral lessons to heart. The new science is not scientific and the new art is not artistic. *That's* what is wrong with public relations.

V. S. Y.

BRIEF NOTICES

The Health of the Mind. By J. R. REES, M.D., Director, World Federation for Mental Health. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1951. Pp. 207. \$2.75.

This book is addressed to the layman who needs to be more adequately informed concerning his psychological makeup and his behavior and that of his children and others. It is a simple exposition, one which may prove helpful to those whose problems do not involve the emotions so deeply but that they readily can put to use the knowledge and understanding conveyed. For social workers it is a presentation worth noting for recommendation to those who might find a new intellectual orientation

helpful in itself or as a first step in seeking help beyond that afforded through reading.

CHARLOTTE TOWLE

Living with Our Children. By LILLIAN M. GILBRETH. With an Introduction by DOROTHY CANFIELD FISHER. Rev. & enl. ed. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., 1951. Pp. 254. \$3.00.

Mrs. Gilbreth wrote *Living with Our Children* in 1928. With the possible exception of the Appendix ("Twenty-five Years After, a Backward

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Glance"), which was written for the 1951 edition, this is an outstandingly confident, positive, and self-assured book. It is the kind of credo one would expect from the competent mother of the family made famous in *Cheaper by the Dozen*. The book is an interesting and sometimes amusing combination of mechanics and moral precepts.

With the morals, few would disagree. They are, as Dorothy Canfield Fisher suggests in her Introduction, mainly good sense, the accepted beliefs of intelligent, reasonable, and adequate Americans. Perhaps the reviewer should add, of comfortable and secure Americans. Mrs. Gilbreth, herself, in discussing the advent of children into a newly established home, states: "I have taken it for granted that the young people whose project we are discussing were themselves born into a family where they were wanted, have felt that it is a happy thing to be a child and have grown up to desire a marriage that shall mean not only love and companionship, but a home and children." With that much taken for granted and the general competence and adequacy of both parents also assumed, the success of the family is practically a foregone conclusion, and specific methods of child training are of secondary importance.

Mrs. Gilbreth advocates the safe, middle way in most situations—"It is important to develop a technique of making beginnings, not neglecting to carry to completion beginnings already made." She urges "enough enthusiasm" but in the next paragraph suggests that it is a good thing not to have too much enthusiasm. After a discussion of the importance of good habits and habit formation, she tells us that habits are not all important—"Creatures of habit merely exist; living is the aim of life." In discussing child psychology, her opinion is that "The newer psychology, with its warnings as to the effects of repression, gives us guidance, but the old psychology was not without value." As advice on teaching a child the dangers of breaking laws, she writes, "A child who is inclined to 'try anything once' may be taken through the accident ward of a hospital; the child who is fussy about food may need to see the waifs in an infant shelter; a lively adolescent who preaches 'freedom' and threatens to practice it, may profit by a visit to a refuge for those who have plunged into excesses. But we must always be sure the remedy will not do more harm than the disease, for an emotional, sensitive child may be excited or shocked rather than warned and brought to balance." Statements such as these can be found on almost every page and illustrate Mrs. Gilbreth's almost extreme "reasonableness."

To most readers, the mechanics of the book, applications of industrial engineering to family living, in the form of tests, analyses, record forms, group councils and evaluations of efficiency, will be amusing rather than advice to be taken seriously or patterns to be followed. In a family of a dozen led by the exuberant Mr. Gilbreth, such schemes

might conceivably be fun. Mrs. Gilbreth very wisely and frequently verbalizes the need for flexibility and tolerance in applying these mechanical devices in the family setting. I cannot but believe that in a group less congenial than the Gilbreths considerable resistance to the whole approach might easily have developed. Not everybody would be as philosophical as Mrs. Gilbreth in the situation which she described as follows (after discussing the various attitudes toward efficient work with which the Gilbreths indoctrinated their young): "The child was made to feel that a well arranged work place was not prescribed for him alone. He was allowed to criticize the work place of the older members of the family and any suggestions he could make for betterment were rewarded. Now and then I had the temerity to claim that I was most comfortable when writing with a block of paper in my lap, standing to iron, or sewing while facing the light, and I soon became the center of attention and criticism of a group of small people whose delight it was to teach me to be efficient. 'This is not motion study,' would be the rallying cry of the clan. And I would find myself with my work place rearranged efficiently. What matter in such a cause if my work was delayed, the poetic thought escaped, the iron cooled, or the idea that had inspired the new trimming completely forgotten." I have known people who would have preferred the escaped thought and the feeling of managing the details of their own life to a well arranged work place.

The exuberant Gilbreths probably enjoyed themselves thoroughly in devising "orderly methods by which to conduct their project of family living." Less zestful individuals and families might better use the energy and time needed to devise such methods and put them into operation in simply "living."

Living with Our Children will, I think, be good and harmless entertainment for young mothers dreaming about the fine job they intend to do bringing up their families. Social workers will find little in it to deepen their insight into either family living or child care.

ETHEL VERRY

The Adopted Family: Book I, You and Your Child: A Guide for Adoptive Parents; Book II, The Family That Grew: A Picture Story Book for the Child. By FLORENCE RONDELL and RUTH MICHAELS. Illustrated by JUDITH EPSTEIN. New York: Crown Publishers, Inc., 1951. Pp. 64; unpagged. \$2.50.

The book, attractive in format, is in two small volumes, one for the adoptive parent and one for the child. The illustrations are pleasing, but in the child's volume perhaps too intricate for young children. The book was written by two social workers experienced in the field of adoption, and the Foreword is by Dr. Viola W. Bernard, who has had experience as consultant to adoption agencies.

The purpose of these volumes is to aid in a happy life for adoptive families by offering guidance in general problems of child rearing, especially in relation to adoption. Dr. Bernard states that the authors' intention is to do this by "minimizing the anxieties referable to adoption," attempting to avoid the dilemma inherent in guidance to a group audience by reiterating general principles of child care and supporting the individual adoptive parent in finding his own ways of meeting these requirements. The individual psychological situations of the readers and the same dynamic character of "anxieties referable to adoption" as other anxieties cannot be overemphasized, as well as the awareness that anxieties may be so allocated inaccurately and that only precise and careful study of many adoptive parents over a long period will tell us if certain anxieties are inherent in the adoption situation.

These books are apparently written primarily for the use of families who have adopted through a social agency, but in many ways they should be helpful to families who have not had the benefit of this help. They should also be useful to case workers both for their own knowledge and for use with adoptive parents.

In the first volume, behavior common to certain age groups is described with a perspective that should be reassuring to the adoptive parent who is living through them for the first time and who may have concern about their possible relation to the fact of the child's adoption. Particularly is this true of the adolescent period, which is reassuringly described.

The information which the book offers in such chapters as "Legal Protection" and "Announcing the Adoption" is specific and practical. A representative bibliography for the lay reader may be found at the end of the volume.

The advice given the adoptive parent in relation to the interpretation to his child of his adoptive status and especially the use of the companion volume, which is recommended for reading to (or by) the child over five, raises certain basic questions about the adopted child's best source of security. The primary question concerns the sense of difference which the adopted child has by virtue of his adoption and the way most likely calculated to minimize this, giving him the necessary protection of knowing his true status from his parents. Though the authors suggest the use of the book only as a corollary to direct answers to questions, there may be great temptation to many parents to use the book alone, and the presentation to the child of the whole story at once may operate in blocking questions and obscuring reactions rather than in stimulating these, as the authors suggest. The presentation of his story to the adopted child in the book and the overcompensatory descriptions of him make one wonder if this exaggerates the adopted child's sense of difference.

This area, that concerned with interpretation to the child himself and the fact that he was born to

other parents, is, of course, the most difficult one for everyone concerned with adoption. Perhaps it will only be when the adoption case worker can fully acknowledge the handicap of adoption that she will give up reassurance to parents and child which is neither reliable nor necessary and instead invest her efforts for the security of the child in the strong and rich family relationships which she has already learned so much about fostering and which this book promises in many ways to advance.

RITA DUKETTE

Patient's Doing Fine! By DAVID M. DORIN. New York: Vantage Press, Inc., 1951. Pp. 122. \$2.50.

This is a book written by a hospital director of wide experience who is familiar with the many fears and problems which confront people who seek hospital care. In order to help dispel some of these fears and solve some of the problems, the author discusses the role of the hospital and physician in the care of the patient. The types of facilities available, the matter of costs, the reasons behind many hospital practices, and the rights of the patient are presented. The language is simple and non-technical, and considerable case material is included. It seems to this reviewer, however, that the author indicates certain limitations in his appreciation of the underlying causes of many of the fears which people bring to a hospital experience. It appears, too, that there is not enough emphasis on the need for an understanding of human behavior by hospital personnel and great emphasis on the need for conformity on the part of the patient.

MARY M. DUNLAP

Social Behavior and Personality; Contributions of W. I. Thomas to Theory and Social Research. Edited by EDMUND H. VOLKART. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1951. Pp. 338. \$3.00.

Because the writings of W. I. Thomas are not easily accessible to present-day scholars, the Social Science Research Council has issued this "volume reviewing and integrating [his] major contributions to sociological and social-psychological theory and method, and making available a selection of his out-of-print and unpublished materials." Edmund H. Volkart has prepared a volume which performs this task and which represents the "case-history" of a scholar groping for understanding. Mr. Volkart has written an introductory chapter for the purpose "of distilling many of [Thomas'] ideas into a single brief statement, thus attempting to supply a long-needed systematic interpretation of his fundamental thought." The "single brief statement" of about thirty pages serves well to introduce the re-

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mainder of the book, selections from Dr. Thomas' works, and is worth reading in its own right by any one interested in social research. The editor has arranged the selections well and his explanatory notes throughout the volume are helpful.

Part I, "Social Science and Social Behavior," concerns methodology, and it is this part that has perhaps the greatest relevance to the field of social work. To those who even today tend to advocate a single approach to research in social work, these writings of Dr. Thomas should prove to be a useful antidote. Thomas is seen at grips with the problem of finding how "to study the objective aspects of social life in a way that is verifiable and at the same time to catch the subjective interpretations of the participants." Over the years he moved from a search for social laws to an attempt "to determine that under certain conditions certain results will follow in certain proportions" as the aim of social research. Over the years he moved toward greater appreciation of statistical method if and when the original data warranted statistical analysis, i.e. when applied to accurate observations. In one of his later papers, Dr. Thomas wrote: "What is needed is a continuous and detailed preparation and study of life histories along with the available statistical studies, to be used as a basis for the inferences drawn. And these inferences in turn must be continually subjected to further statistical analysis as it becomes possible to transmute more factors into quantitative form. The case study method and the 'natural history' method must not only precede the more scientifically acceptable method in order to produce realistic hypotheses and indicate what units should be defined and isolated; they must also be used as a general background of reference to the more limited statistical findings, which lead . . . to inferences which must be constantly checked for validity against the large mass of material not yet analyzable" (93-94).

Part II, "Social Behavior and Personal Dynamics," as the title implies, concerns Dr. Thomas' ideas about the individual. His development, as Mr. Volkart points up, "gradually moved away from a theory emphasizing internal dynamics to one emphasizing external dynamics (social influences)." Part III is devoted to "Social Behavior and Cultural Dynamics." Part IV consists of a hitherto unpublished report to the Social Science Research Council, "Outline of a Program for the Study of Personality and Culture," submitted in 1933. In this paper Dr. Thomas calls for a multidiscipline approach to the problems of personality and culture through intensive individual studies and through studies of mass phenomena.

MARY E. MACDONALD

CHARLES D. STEWART. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1951. Pp. xii+552. \$6.50.

The authors of this work have approached manpower resources and their utility in terms of the *job* and of the *people* who make up the working force. Instead of approaching the subject in any traditional manner, they have taken a fresh approach, which concerns itself primarily with the distinctive aspects of the activities of people who engage in the production of goods and services and how the workings of society come to bear on the movement and framework of the working force.

The organization of the material is logical and clearly presented. It consists of definition, historical background, and a present-day picture of the working force, followed by an excellent section of descriptive material and factual data which clarifies the earlier discussion.

Its interest for social workers lies in its clear exposition of the material through the use of a statistical base together with what might be broadly termed a "case method" of development and explanation which includes material from economies other than our own American economy.

HENRY A. DAUM

Governmental Organization in Metropolitan Areas.

By BETTY TABLEMAN. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press. Pp. 197.

The subtitle of this important and timely study is "Metropolitan Problems and Solutions." The American county has been called the jungle, and rightly so, because not many average citizens know how our three thousand counties are governed, by whom, and with what results, from the viewpoint of sober-minded students of public administration. Perhaps the "metropolitan area," the subject of the work under notice, is even more mysterious and strange to the taxpayers and "sovereign" citizens. Light upon it and its problems and needs is therefore welcome and deserving of attentive and serious consideration.

It is of course generally known that in late years population has flowed beyond the metropolitan cities and settled in unincorporated areas and suburbs or villages. How are their needs—police, fire prevention, water, gas and electricity, garbage removal, etc.—supplied and by whom regulated? This is the question. The answers vary. There are 150 such areas or districts, and all face problems that are by no means simple.

Solutions for these problems are not wanting. Considerable experimentation is being carried on, and scientific students of government are discussing them. Mrs. Tableman's monograph indicates the several solutions and pays particular attention to the Michigan metropolitan areas and their respec-

Manpower Resources and Utilization: Principles of Working Force Analysis. By A. J. JAFEE and

tive accomplishments as well as lessons. She is research assistant in the bureau of the government institute of public administration. The study is earnestly recommended.

V. S. Y.

The School in American Culture. By MARGARET MEAD. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951. Pp. x+48. \$1.50.

This little book is the substance of Margaret Mead's Inglis lecture at Harvard University, March 15, 1950. Indeed, the very inviting of an anthropologist to speak to "educators" indicates a new direction that, happily, is presently being explored. Moreover, educational anthropology is finding a place in the new curriculum of university offerings and, it is thought, with sufficient reason. The work of the anthropologists and sociologists has uncovered a spate of "new" forces and roadblocks in American education. It is not necessary here to detail the findings of the Lynds, Warner, the Kluckhohns, Davis, Havighurst, Taba, and others which deal with the social and personal problems suggested so long ago by such novelists as Dreiser, Farrell, John P. Marquand, and others.

Dr. Mead, however, deals only indirectly with class and caste in America. She is concerned primarily with the curriculum of the public schools, its personnel, the education of its teachers, and the sometime necessity for them "to unlearn much" which they have hitherto held true so that society may reap a maximum benefit from their ministrations. In her analysis she provides parallels from other cultures which tend both to give a sense of authenticity to her viewpoint and a scientific flavor to her verdicts.

She sees three "schools" that have developed within our culture and dominated its history. The first, "the little red schoolhouse," she says, is actually only a symbol, but it stands for both a desirable state never yet obtained and for a past golden age that has been lost—the school in a world which did not change, a world of rural images. The second school is that of tradition and the desire to give the next generation "the advantages of a fine education," which is the attempt to structure the future in terms of the past and is full, she says, of all of America's ambivalence about England, about tradition, and about class.

The third image, the city school, is that which makes for its members a break with the past. It turns out pupils who, because they cannot look back, have in a sense no perspective at all—but "only the dreadful urgency of moving on." Yet there is much to be said for this school's cognizance of change.

Returning to her images, which she describes with almost infinite variety, Dr. Mead suggests the American necessity for training a teacher able to cope with the difficulties of a world of rapid culture change. She sees a teacher who plays somewhat the

role of the one in the little red schoolhouse; because of the middle-class position of parents and teacher, he inducts the child into a world where the model parent and teacher must punish and reward the growing child as he fails or succeeds in reaching out for and assimilating the values of this middle-class culture. This teacher must, nevertheless, keep abreast with the newest scientific discovery and with the "latest song on her lips" prepare her students for tomorrow.

Some criticism may be assessed of Dr. Mead's many variations of her school images, which tend at length to become confusing, and of her use of the word "theme," which appears with a variety of meanings. On the whole, however, one has the sense of reading something new in social science literature—an attempt to understand what education is for and how it works—then, a reconstruction of a system within which it may, we hope, produce new achievements, now sorely needed.

KENNETH V. LOTTICK

The Serpent-wreathed Staff. By ALICE TISDALE HOBART. New York: Bobbs-Merrill Co., Inc., 1951. Pp. 403. \$3.50.

It is seldom that this magazine includes reviews of novels, but it is believed that *The Serpent-wreathed Staff*, a novel about doctors and some of the most controversial problems in medical practice, will be of interest to its readers. The best and the worst in current medical practice are depicted in the two leading characters—two brothers, Allan and Sam, who are doctors. Both are skilful orthopedic surgeons; both in the beginning of their careers are ambitious, professionally and personally.

Sam, the older, soon ceases to consider his skill as a service to humanity but uses it only for personal gain—both professional aggrandizement and financial success. He has little concern for his patients, in fact for no people except the very few in his family closest to him and, when they differ with him, he cannot tolerate them. It is early understood that, although to the world Sam is a highly successful professional person, to himself he gradually becomes a miserable, lonely, insecure person.

Allan, the younger brother, on the other hand, early becomes identified with his patients as individuals and as humans. He gives of himself and his skill to his patients as they need him, regardless of the cost to himself, in terms of time, strength, loss of prestige in the eyes of other members of his profession, or financial gain. His professional defeat comes when he helps his patients develop a prepaid medical-care program within their limited means.

The wives of these two men are strong, interesting women with convictions of their own. The story of the closeness and interdependence of this family, with all its involvements and differences, is intriguing.

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We become intimately acquainted with many doctors through this story and learn of their innermost struggle in trying to think through these professional alignments for themselves. There are some who are closely identified with Allan and others with Sam. There are still others who are honest and soul searching, but who cannot completely agree with either Allan or Sam. The book brings out so poignantly the anxiety of the economically poor people who cannot pay for medical care, the driving need of the well-to-do parent to find the doctor who really understands and stays by through the tedious treatment of a crippled child, the disabling fear of the patient with a progressive disease, the panic of a community beset by a plague like poliomyelitis. We see the confidence and satisfaction which these patients have in Allan and in the security of his medical-care program.

The book clearly shows the difficulty of the young medical man in making a start because of the closed-shop tactics of organized medicine through its state and local organizations, and the unprofessional and questionable methods that can be employed by the established medical man in relation to the newcomer.

The reviewer agrees with the publisher that this book may have no lukewarm readers; but, on the score of medical problems, every reader will find himself a "warm partisan of the philosophy of one brother or the other."

WILMA WALKER

India Afire. By CLARE and HARRIS WOFFORD, JR.
New York: John Day Co., 1951. Pp. 344. \$4.00.

In this book an idealistic, unusually well-informed, youthful couple report their six months' whirlwind visit of 1949. The Foundation for World Government financed their trip, for they had been keen and zealous leaders among student world federalists. They were appalled by the awful poverty and other ills they found. They talked about conditions with everybody they encountered in cities, villages, buses, and trains. They sometimes lived with Indians. Firsthand impressions and descriptions of life as it is being lived in India give the book its chief value. It can scarcely be authoritative in the field of its dominant interest, politics. India was too new and surprising to them, their visit too short, their historical knowledge and political experience too limited for that. Their many pronouncements against present government leaders and their many decisions as to measures that should be taken are too unmodified. Theirs seems a counsel of immediate perfection. "India having had the fortune to produce Gandhi cannot now escape being judged by his life." (But we produced Lincoln!) They preface a long list of conclusions with the statement that this is what Gandhi would say. Can they always be sure of Gandhi's answers?

India had been independent only eighteen months on their arrival. Yet they blamed Nehru and the Congress Party even for such things as lack of foresight in providing for ten million babies born during that time (their figure) and not building certain byroads before they were politically required. Yet the government met staggering problems—partition, millions of refugees, integration of about five hundred states, monsoon erratics, landlordism, lack of capital, illiteracy, resistance to change through religious beliefs and customs, many other serious problems. India cannot be rebuilt in a day.

Sardar Patel, whom Indians generally call the builder of the nation, is treated disparagingly. Strong disapproval of Nehru is expressed again and again. "At every turning-point Nehru abandoned his principles." He must have "a burden of sorrow in abandoning him [Gandhi] so soon and so completely."

Our writers talked with Communists and Socialists and sometimes with Congress workers, including Nehru. They found their hope in socialism. It is still weak but rich in Gandhian ideals and promising programs. They believe it the most democratic party in Asia—and this may well be. But fortunately India has many true patriots and even world-minded thinkers of differing political opinions. Many of these are wise, capable, and selfless. They have rendered an amazing number and variety of important services to their motherland—and even beyond.

One appreciates such devoted, thoughtful, and capable young people as these writers. Their example of learning their world through visiting with people where they live is invaluable. And we must unqualifiedly agree with their main conclusion that if the U.S.A. and the UN co-operate with India fully, that country will be the great bastion against communism. The West requires and can then have a democratic India.

HAZEL E. FOSTER

A Short History of the Far East. By KENNETH SCOTT LATOURETTE. Rev. ed. New York: Macmillan, 1951. Pp. xi+720. \$5.25.

The first edition of this book appeared as recently as 1946. But five years of world-altering events in India and the Far East made imperative this second edition, which is sixty-five pages longer than the first one, chiefly an added chapter, "Aftermath and Continuation of Storm." No one can give us the centuries-long, complicated historical background and the interpretation of recent changes in this area better than Dr. Latourette, who, after a long teaching experience, is now Sterling Professor of Missions and Oriental History at Yale University and has written many books, chiefly on China and Japan.

Although the author grieves because what he has written here has been greatly abbreviated, he has produced a remarkably clear and informing account;

and most of his chapters close with a useful summary. There are eighteen chapters, a fourteen-page index, six maps by M. Wysocki; and at the end of each chapter a double bibliography lists books "For Brief Reference" and "For More Extended Study." Indeed, Dr. Latourette states that he hopes to serve "general readers," also to provide a textbook. He is writing definitely for American readers and therefore dwells on American relationships. He is convinced that he can serve his countrymen best through the most objective treatment. He is sure that the present can be understood only through the past, also that it is imperative for Americans to understand "all phases of the history of man's thinking and acting in the region." He deplors our "sea of ignorance" of this third of the world's population with whose future ours is closely interlocked.

To this end he begins with the dawn of history and gives us the picture of the Far East and India as they were before Western penetration. He considers the Far East to "mean the Eastern portions of Asia and the adjacent islands," principally China, Japan, and "Lesser Lands." He gives considerable attention to India, however, because of its centuries-long cultural and religious influence on the Far East, although these two cultures have always remained distinct. The Far East is a unity, partly because China was the source of its language and culture and partly because of its isolation from the rest of Asia and the world generally through the earth's highest and long-stretching mountains, vast deserts, ocean waters, long peninsulas. Only the Occident, in the nineteenth century, was very effective in initiating contacts. Until then, China and India had "vast civilization centers" as high as the West had known.

The first chapter is "The Geographic Setting," followed by chapters dealing with "Pre-Occidental South and East Asia": on India, on China, on Japan, on "The Lesser Lands" of Tibet, Sinkiang, Mongolia, Korea, Eastern Siberia, Indo-China, Siam, Burma, Ceylon, the Malay Peninsula, East Indies, the Philippines. The rest of the book concerns "India and the Far East in Revolution," explaining post-occidental situations under groupings much like those of the first half. The political and cultural countries are made to stand out as unique and yet be combined into one close-knit fabric.

Although reading the volume through is desirable, any chapter can well be read for itself or used for intensive study with the help the book furnishes. Or various topics can be studied singly, such as a country or civilization discussed, climatic influences, religions, forms of government, historic influences of one country on another. In fact, this *Short History* seems almost an encyclopedia for quick reference in its field, which has many subcategories. As a college or graduate-school textbook it should be very useful and timely.

Finally, the added chapter requires brief comment. After the first edition was prepared, India, Pakistan, Ceylon, the Republic of Indonesia, were

established as free nations. The United Nations was making history in India and the Far East. The government of China became communist. The world had divided further into two camps. Dr. Latourette here helps us to see why these things are so. And clear understanding of India and the Far East by democratic people is necessary for the future. Our author brings his story well into the year of this edition's publication, 1951. Yet already another chapter is needed. Will this mean another edition soon?

HAZEL E. FOSTER

Oversea Settlement: Migration from the United Kingdom to the Dominions. By G. F. PLANT, C.B.E. Issued under the auspices of the Royal Institute of International Affairs. London: Oxford University Press, 1951. Pp. vi+186. 16s.

Until his retirement in 1937 the author of this interesting volume was secretary of the Oversea Settlement Committee appointed in 1918 and of its successor, the Oversea Settlement Board. The history of British migration from the earliest times to the present day is surveyed here with special reference to the policies adopted to encourage the settlement and development of the Empire after the Napoleonic Wars and after the First World War. The author deals with the work in the nineteenth century of Wilmot Horton and Gibbon Wakefield, of the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners, of the Emigrants' Information Office, and of various philanthropic societies and individuals. In the twentieth century the events leading up to the appointment of the Oversea Settlement Committee in 1918 and the passing of the Empire Settlement Act in 1922 are dealt with, and the various schemes of state-aided migrations and settlement which were entered into under that act by the government of the United Kingdom in co-operation with overseas governments and public and private organizations.

The author sets out his personal views on the results of past policies and on proposals for the future, such as mass migration and the transfer of industries, and suggests a possible line of approach to the problem of migration at the present day in the light of past experience and of existing conditions, political, social, and economic. He includes a summary of the views on migration expressed in the recent Report of the Royal Commission on Population.

The subject is treated in four periods: "First Period to 1815," "Second Period, 1815-1914," "Third Period, 1914-39," and "The Contemporary Period." There is a useful list of what the author calls "principal sources," which is a two-page list of British State Papers dealing with the subject, including the *Annual Reports, 1842-73, of the Colonial Land and Emigration Commission* and the statement of His Majesty's Government in the United Kingdom, June, 1945, on migration within the British Commonwealth (Cmd. 6058, 1945).

He quotes Mr. Winston Churchill, who as Secretary of State for the Colonies, received a deputation from the Royal Colonial Institute on the subject of State-aided Empire Migration and settlement, February, 1922. In the course of his reply, Mr. Churchill said: "I would point out that there is nothing more true about Empire Settlement than that continued persistency and perseverance are required. A year will show practically nothing. Ten years will begin to show results. In fifty years, great and lasting changes may be set on foot, and in a century a revolution may be effected in the balance of population."

With Mr. Churchill's words as his text the author has attempted to make a brief survey of the past history of migration from the United Kingdom to the Commonwealth countries and to inquire what material it affords for suggesting a migration policy for the future.

He suggests that the proposition that the white population of the British Commonwealth is badly distributed is "perfectly reasonable." The density of population to the square mile of "habitable" area is over 500 in Great Britain, while in Canada it is less than 10 and in Australia less than 5. The author thinks that, although "opinions may vary as to the 'optimum' population both of the United Kingdom and of the Dominions overseas," there is no doubt that Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, and Southern Rhodesia could, "without undue strain in their social or economic systems, absorb at least two or three times their existing numbers." That is, although the overseas governments for the most part would be glad to welcome suitable settlers on a large scale, especially from the United Kingdom, so far as the United Kingdom is concerned, however, the position is more complicated. "It is true that the country is densely populated (whether over-populated or not is a matter of opinion) and that there are considerable numbers of people who would be glad of an opportunity of migrating and settling in Australia as well as in the other Dominions. The question is whether the United Kingdom can spare the people who wish to migrate and whom the Dominions are anxious to receive. In any event, an adequate readjustment of the white population of the British Commonwealth would involve a steady flow of migrants from the United Kingdom to the Dominions over a period of years."

There follows a statement regarding the United Kingdom point of view, which is that, generally speaking, other things being equal, it is the size of the population that makes a nation powerful. The United Kingdom is the heart, as well as the European outpost, of the British Commonwealth and there would be the risk that it might be unduly weakened by the migration of people in such numbers as the Dominions require."

E. A.

Selected Readings in Social Psychology. Edited by STEUART HENDERSON BRITT. New York: Rine-

hart & Co., Inc., 1950. Pp. xvi+507. \$2.00. Paper bound.

In order to give students additional factual information about the broad scope of social psychology, fifty short selections have been carefully chosen and edited for this volume. The emphasis has been on selections from experimental and observational reports and on summaries of significant empirical studies. Brief selections have been used. No attempt has been made to write digests of books or lengthy articles.

Both "old" and "new" materials have been included, but with more emphasis on recent empirical studies. Excerpts have been included both from professional journals and books. From the student's standpoint, both "hard" and "easy" materials are found.

The selections have been grouped under the following six headings: (1) "Social Psychology and Its Methods," (2) "Biological and Social Foundations of Behavior," (3) "Some Individual Factors of Social Adjustment," (4) "Behavior in the Presence of Others," (5) "The Social Psychology of Institutions," (6) "Social Conflicts."

This book may be used in conjunction with any one of the principal texts in social psychology, and a special table is given which relates the readings to specific pages in each text. The table is arranged alphabetically by topics for ready reference.

The "editing" in the volume has for the most part been the deleting of paragraphs or tables or illustrations "when the sense of the selection could still be made in shortened form," and in "only a few instances have sentences within paragraphs been deleted." Dots (...) have not been used to indicate breaks in a selection; but each excerpt is printed as an intact whole.

Personalities in Social Reform. By G. BROMLEY OXNAM. Abingdon-Cokesbury Press, 1950. Pp. 176. \$2.00.

A social worker may be disappointed in finding that the series of "reformers" who are discussed by Bishop Oxnam are not the men and women who are well known in the social field. The five subjects of chapters include (1) "The Scholar as Social Reformer: Sidney and Beatrice Webb," (2) "The Minister as Social Reformer: Walter Rauschenbusch," (3) "The Administrator as Social Reformer: David Lilienthal," (4) "The Saint as Social Reformer: Mohandas K. Gandhi," (5) "The Missionary as Social Reformer: Albert Schweitzer."

The author of the book, who is the bishop of the New York Area of the Methodist Church, may himself be said to be a "personality in social reform" active over the years in the "crusade for social justice."

George Foster Peabody, Banker, Philanthropist, Publicist. By LOUISE WARE. Athens, Ga.: University of Georgia Press, 1951. Pp. x+279. \$4.00.

This is a pleasantly written biography of a man who belonged to a poor Southern family but who was very successful in business and became a millionaire. His riches were generously given to many "good causes," and he became a well-known philanthropist.

He was a native of Georgia. He lived from 1852 to 1938. His family, impoverished by the Civil War, left Georgia and settled in Brooklyn, but he was forced by poverty to leave school and began his career as an errand boy in a Brooklyn mercantile house. He built up a fortune in investment banking and related activities and he became a member of the board of directors of numerous companies which his firm financed. When he was fifty-four, he retired from business and devoted his time to humanitarian work. He promoted music and the arts; he was a sponsor of the peace movement; a member of the Men's League for Woman Suffrage; was actively interested in the YMCA, and was one of the prominent laymen of his day in Episcopal Church affairs. His chief interest was probably education, and he was a member of the board of trustees of several educational institutions, including Hampton, Tuskegee, Penn School, the University of Georgia, and Colorado College for Women. He gave generously to educational work of various kinds. In this book his major business operations are dealt with in some detail.

"He had in an unusual degree a feeling for the responsibilities of citizenship in a democracy, and, when he became wealthy, a feeling for the responsibilities which wealth entails. He was not, perhaps, one of the outstanding figures of his country and his time, but he was unmistakably a person of importance."

His gifts to the schools for Negroes with which he was connected flowed in a steady stream. He was one of the chief backers of the work of Booker T. Washington and he subsidized the work of several individuals who made a study and compilation of Negro spirituals.

He made substantial gifts to the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, to various settlements, to the Brooklyn Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, to the Volunteers' Prisoners League.

"It was his desire to have personal supervision over his philanthropies that lead him to retire from business in order to become, as he put it, his own executor. He had a distaste for the 'dead hand' in benefactions, believing that future generations should not be hampered by commitments made in legacies. He preferred to give away his whole accumulated fortune in his lifetime, thus serving as a 'steward of wealth' in the Biblical sense."

The author of the book, Dr. Louise Ware, a native of Atlanta, Georgia, is professor and chairman of the Sociology Department of Adelphi College, New York.

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REVIEWS OF GOVERNMENT REPORTS AND PUBLIC DOCUMENTS

Annual Report on Child and Youth Welfare: Summaries of Annual Reports from Governments for the Year 1948-1949 (1951.IV.1). By UNITED NATIONS DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL AFFAIRS. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951. Pp. v+191. \$1.25.

This *Report* is based on summaries of annual reports from different governments for the year 1948-49 and is the third annual report on this subject which has been published by the United Nations.

A resolution of the Social Commission makes some changes in the publication of future reports, which will be published biennially instead of annually and will be expanded to cover community, family, and child welfare. A new outline has been prepared for the use of the governments in submitting their reports for the year 1949-50. It is very difficult to prepare an outline that will fit the programs of some thirty countries with such extremes in their services to families, children, and youth. Many countries have such broad definitions of "welfare services," often including health and education, that it is difficult to determine the limits of the report. With the *Report* calling for information in the different service categories, a picture of the broad variety of services focused on children in this country is not always easy to give.

This most recent *Report* carries brief summaries of longer reports submitted from thirty countries. With the difficulties presented by the outline to be followed and the briefing of the material, obviously much has been lost in presenting a clear and adequate picture of services given to the children and youth of these countries. However, if one reads these reports with a discerning eye, much of interest can be noted.

The various governments are beginning to see the needs of children and youth. The reports emphasize expansion of services and facilities and the training of personnel; more funds are being appropriated for these purposes. Vast differences were shown between the underdeveloped countries, those for whom the Point IV pro-

gram was particularly designed, and the better developed countries. The more underdeveloped countries are emphasizing almost entirely the health needs of children, trying to cope with the serious problems of disease and malnutrition. In doing this, however, some are venturing into new activities such as the establishment of community restaurants in Iraq to help with the problem of the undernourished. The better developed countries, like Australia, report many different fields of activities such as health education, social welfare, recreation, administration, and services to special groups of children, such as the spastics and those suffering from cerebral palsy. The report of this country also emphasizes research, a subject which does not appear in most of the reports.

A number of countries are depending more and more on insurance or pension aspects of social welfare rather than on assistance or relief based on need. Money is being made available to families and individuals on the basis of specific factors, such as childhood and marital status, rather than on individual need which has had such a great development in this country. Not only do a number of the countries have firmly entrenched family or children's allowance plans, but some of them are increasing the rates paid, for example, Australia in its 1948 act.

In reading the reports of other countries few impressions are obtained of social services as we know them in this country, namely, social case work, social group work, and community organization. The importance of relationships does not come out. Seemingly, social workers in other countries work particularly with respect to health needs of families and individuals and on an environmental level for the most part.

With respect to children needing care and protection you get a sense of "state wardship" of children but little picture of what happens to the children after they become wards of the state. Obviously institutions are still largely depended on in many countries for children who must be cared for outside their own homes. The

heavy load carried by private organizations for these children in many countries is also apparent.

Not only is the sense of governmental responsibility for the welfare of people taking hold, but also certain rights which people have in these programs are beginning to be recognized. The right to appeal is one example. Canada reports the first Appeals Committee to be set up under their Family Allowances Act. The function of the committee is to review the facts in any case where "a person is dissatisfied with a decision as to his right to be paid an allowance or as to the amount of the allowance payable to him or as to any other matter arising under this Act."

The lack of qualified personnel plagues all countries. Many of the countries are establishing new or expanding existing training facilities. Lebanon reports that the first training school for social workers was established in 1947 and received government recognition a few months later.

A number of the countries now are emphasizing services to rural areas, much as the Social Security Act in this country placed such emphasis on the maternal and child welfare services in 1935.

We can take comfort from the fact that those countries which have had long-established programs are struggling with the same problems as we have in this country—problems such as the co-operation of state services and voluntary bodies, the protection of children and young people, the training of personnel, the contribution of specialists to services, and the clarification of the functions of the children's courts and child-welfare officers.

In reading this *Report*, one is impressed with the fact that for the most part governments are alive to the need for developing services to children and youth and give this an important place in planning. For the *Report* to be interesting reading, it must be seen in its larger aspects. For the reader it can make clear the contrasts in services between countries and back of these contrasts, the differences—historical, cultural, and developmental—that brought about these contrasts. And perhaps we can take some encouragement from the evidence which the *Report* shows of the continual striving of the countries to provide a better way of life for all the people.

MILDRED ARNOLD

*Children's Bureau
Federal Security Agency
Washington, D.C.*

The Illinois State Budget for the Biennium July 1, 1951, to June 30, 1953, Submitted to the Sixty-seventh General Assembly. By ADLAI E. STEVENSON, GOVERNOR. Springfield, Illinois, 1951. Pp. 73+433.

This is an amazingly enlightening and useful state budget document. It is not the usual tome of detailed figures representing requests for funds and past expenditures. Rather this is a graphic and appealing presentation of a complex and growing state government. It is almost a textbook which utilizes the latest in pictographs, charts, organization charts, and other visual aids to help the legislator understand what each state agency is doing. The volume is equally instructive to the citizen and to the student. The whole is artistically and attractively done, so that it is both pleasing and arresting as well as instructive.

The frontispiece is a two-page graphic presentation of the state government, legislative, judicial, and executive. The first seventy-three pages present the Governor's Budget Message, a summary of budget requests and revenues, etc. This is followed by a departmental and agency presentation where the program and services of each agency are described and analyzed. The social worker and the student of public welfare will naturally be particularly interested in the sections devoted to the Departments of Public Welfare (pp. 204-95), Public Safety (pp. 173-203), Public Health (pp. 150-72), Labor (pp. 119-33), Public Aid Commission (pp. 387-92), Commission for Handicapped Children (pp. 374-75), Civil Service Commission (pp. 364-67), etc., but they will be attracted to other sections as well. The volume will have interest for persons outside Illinois because it is a good illustration of how interestingly and instructively the whole of a state government can be presented in one document.

The reader of this document will obtain a better understanding of how the Department of Public Welfare cares for 50,000 persons in its twenty-eight institutions, how it serves thousands of others in their own and foster-homes through a variety of extramural services: Child Welfare, Youth and Community, parole, child-guidance clinics, etc. He will learn how the department organizes itself to deliver these numerous services to its large clientele all over the state. He will find a sympathetic description of the services, their costs, the problems, gaps in service, personnel shortages, and administrative

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difficulties that have been encountered. All this is discussed with a refreshing frankness. He will find charts that will tell him at a glance how the institutional population has grown, how inflation has skyrocketed the per capita costs, and a comparison of institutional expenditures for such items as food, fuel, clothing, medical supplies, etc. A brief description of each state institution is included.

The Department of Public Safety operates four correctional institutions, including a state farm, a parole service, a classification service, a criminal identification unit, the State Highway Police, and a fire prevention unit. These services, and many others of interest to social workers, are discussed in this unique document.

Anyone who has responsibility for presenting material clearly, simply, and convincingly will get inspiration and ideas from this report. It achieves standards of clarity, exposition, interest, and instructiveness that few annual reports in social welfare attain.

ALTON A. LINFORD

University of Chicago

The Outlook for Women in Social Case Work with Families. (Social Work Series Bulletin No. 235-4.) By U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, WOMEN'S BUREAU. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1951. Pp. ix+84. \$0.30.

This report is a factual presentation of data on employment in family case-work agencies today, both public and private. Surveyed with brevity and conciseness are the kinds of agencies which focus on the family as the unit of social concern, the trends and conditions of employment in such agencies, the demand and supply of workers, earnings, working conditions, etc. The Appendix carries lists of accredited schools of social work, names of organizations which can provide information specific to their purposes and needs, and other pertinent reference data.

For persons seeking "information only" about family case-work opportunities—students and their advisers in colleges, vocational counselors, students in schools of social work, and even workers and executives already in the field who want an over-all view of the employment situation and outlook—this report will prove most useful.

It is clear that the purpose of this and like publications of the Women's Bureau must be to

inform and not to recruit. Even so, out of a concern for the great need for good social case workers, a need which this publication makes manifest, this reviewer would wish that this bulletin had greater recruitment values. The choice of a service vocation must rest at least as much upon anticipation of the rewards to the mind and spirit as upon the reward of employment security. For young women of imagination and intelligence to want to enter social work as a profession it is necessary that they be given something more than this report holds of the nature of the human problems which call for family case work and the ways and means by which the social case worker can be helpful. Perhaps from the rich and varied source material which the author of this bulletin consulted, some statement could have been culled and quoted to express the facts of the emotional demand and the emotional fulfillment to be found in this work. One further comment: case work is hard enough to explain in words; it is almost impossible to depict. The pictures in this bulletin have a dispiriting effect. The pad and pencil in the hand of the case worker seems inevitable, and many of the unstaged camera shots have a cold, two-dimensional quality which belie the warmth and depth of the human relationships involved in social case work. One wonders if small sketches or pictograms might not better have served to brighten the text and to interpret its content.

HELEN H. PERLMAN

University of Chicago

Texas State Department of Public Welfare, Annual Report, 1951. Austin, Texas, November, 1951. Pp. x+79. Processed.

This *Report* covers the activities and program of the Texas State Department of Public Welfare for the fiscal year ending August 31, 1951. The department is responsible for Old Age Assistance, Aid to Dependent Children, Aid to the Blind, and Child Welfare Services. These services are all operated directly by the state agency. Texas has not yet established a program for the Permanently and Totally Disabled.

The *Report* highlights the effects of the Old Age and Survivors Insurance amendments of 1950 on the Public Assistance program in Texas. It also presents 1950 census data, showing the population growth in Texas during the last decade. While the state experienced a gen-

eral population growth of 20 per cent, the under five and over sixty-five groups both increased by over 50 per cent during the decade. Another interesting fact is that Texas is no longer a rural state, as many people suppose; 63 per cent of its population is classed as urban.

The impact of the 1950 amendments on the state of Texas may be seen from the following figures: the number of OASI beneficiaries increased in the twelve-month period, June 30, 1950, to June 30, 1951, from 82,300 to 120,300, and the annual amount of the benefits paid from \$18,095,000 to \$41,111,000. Naturally, this increase in OASI had the effect of reducing the burden on Old Age Assistance and Aid to Dependent Children. The grants of 23,882 public assistance cases were adjusted during the year as a direct result of the OASI amendments; 5,470 of these were closed, and 17,268 were lowered. Another 1,223 applications were rejected because the enlarged OASI benefit would cover the budgeted needs of these persons. The department estimates that its expenditures for the year were reduced by \$3.5 million because of the OASI amendments.

Texas lags behind the rest of the country with respect to the extent to which the burdens of dependency have been transferred from Public Assistance to OASI. For example, in June, 1951, there were a total of 4,633,600 beneficiaries of OASI in the United States, compared with 2,745,285 on Old Age Assistance. In Texas in the same month, OASI beneficiaries numbered 120,300 compared with 221,814 recipients of OAA. Nevertheless, the report credits OASI with producing a downward trend in OAA case load in Texas where, prior to 1951, it had increased each year since 1944.

The *Report* frankly reveals some of the limitations of the Public Assistance programs in Texas. For example, it is reported that Texas ranked thirty-seventh among the states in size of its average monthly OAA payment, thirty-eighth in Aid to the Blind, and forty-second in ADC. The national averages for all three categories were each more than \$10.00 higher than monthly average payments in Texas. Throughout most of the year, the state was obliged to pay less than full budgets because of insufficient state appropriations.

Some interesting facts about the ADC case load are supplied. Of a total of 19,486 families receiving ADC in October, 1950, absence from the home was the cause of dependency in over 52 per cent, or 10,277 cases. Of these 10,277

absent fathers, 5,594 had deserted, 2,912 were divorced, and 1,771 were separated. A total of 3,325 of the deserted fathers, who were not married to the mothers, were not legally liable, because under Texas law the father is not legally bound to support his illegitimate children. Of the 5,109 divorced, separated, or deserting fathers, who are required by law to support their children, only 1,843 were under court order to do so; and of these, less than one-third were making any payments. In 1951 the state legislature enacted a law authorizing the state to enter into reciprocal agreements with other states whereby a court order for support may be enforced even where the father has fled the state, provided he is found in a state which has signed such an agreement with Texas. This law will not apply to fathers of illegitimate children, however.

Perhaps the most interesting section of the *Report* relates to the child welfare services rendered by the department. From the *Report*, it would appear that these services are limited to two: (1) investigation of adoption petitions; (2) a general case-work service to dependent, neglected, and children in danger of becoming delinquent. The latter program operates because of the availability of federal funds under Title V of the Social Security Act. Child welfare units operate in only 20 counties, with the other 234 counties receiving only limited services by personnel operating out of state offices. Some services were rendered to 9,454 children in some 5,265 families. Most of the referrals came from courts and various other public agencies, with about 20 per cent coming from parents and relatives.

Since 1947, legislation has required that all adoption petitions be referred to the department for investigation. During the year some 4,018 petitions were referred to the department. The department has found that the petitions do not include certain vital information: 30 per cent did not reveal who placed the child in the adoptive home, even though the law prohibits placement by unlicensed persons and agencies. Only 16 per cent were placed by licensed child-placing agencies; 19 per cent by the parents; and 31 per cent were step-parent adoptions. Thus, the department found that 34 per cent of the placements were of questionable character under the licensing law. Almost 60 per cent of the petitions did not reveal the relationship of the child and the petitioner. As many as 80 per cent did not reveal the age of the petitioning mother. In 1951 the legislature amended the adoption law to re-

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More than one-half of the *Report* is made up of detailed statistical tables related to the Public Assistance program.

A. A. L.

The Four Million: Report of the New York State Citizens' Committee of One Hundred on Children and Youth. Albany, 1951. Pp. xxx+225.

The concentrated efforts of a great many informed persons, both lay and professional—more than seven hundred in all—made possible this attractively presented and highly readable *Report* on ways of meeting the needs of the Empire State's four million children and youth.

The New York State Citizens' Committee of One Hundred for Children and Youth was appointed by Governor Thomas E. Dewey in March, 1950, under the chairmanship of Samuel R. Milbank. Governor Dewey sketched the broad outlines of the study in his charge that "the care and development of children is a responsibility of all the people, and I know that you will, therefore, go to the people of New York State for suggestions, ideas, opinions, and facts to consider in your deliberations." The committee organized sections on child care, child health, mental health, education, youth services, rural youth, industrial youth, and protective and correctional care, with a member of the committee serving as chairman of each section. Advisory, technical, and steering committees were set up to implement the gigantic task of effectuating the governor's directive.

The Committee's fact-finding produced 2,500 typewritten pages of conclusions and recommendations. The final *Report* presents material selected from the section reports, "important enough . . . to warrant the emphasis which comes from publication and wide distribution, but in no way to be considered as summaries of the section reports." The latter also have been made available to citizens sufficiently interested to consult the copies placed accessibly at various points throughout the state.

Chairman Milbank makes it plain in the introductory chapter that the aim of the study and report was to produce *action*. Each succeeding chapter lists problems, describes progress achieved, and offers succinct recommendations. Chapter titles include The Family, Care Away from Home, Education, Physical and

Mental Health, Physically Handicapped Children and Youth, Mentally Handicapped Children and Youth, Children and Youth in Trouble, Children and Youth in the World at Work, and The Child and the Community. A detailed index enhances the reference value of the publication. Each chapter is brightened by at least two appealing pictorial illustrations.

Although credit is given for gains made toward meeting the needs set forth, unsolved problems and blueprints to cope with them fill most of the pages. The use of italics for all recommendations literally forces the reader to think in terms of the future and the urgency of a great, dynamic, state-wide impetus to reach charted goals.

This is a strong, moving, captivating report, pervaded by a spiritual quality of hopeful determination. If one is tired after having reached the last page, it is an exhilarating exhaustion, brought on by the swift tempo and the pronounced concentration of essential material.

The prediction seems warranted that this fascinating volume will accumulate little dust on library shelves for years to come. As it circulates over New York State and the nation, its waves of influence most certainly will bring fresh understanding and inspiration to thousands of people in every walk of life. It should stimulate zeal to make life in this democracy and its constituent states safer, happier, fuller, and more satisfying for those who too soon must inherit the staggering problems of our times.

RICHARD EDDY

Illinois Children's Hospital-School

Children and Youth in Illinois: A Report to the Honorable Adlai E. Stevenson, Governor of Illinois. By GOVERNOR'S COMMITTEE FOR ILLINOIS ON THE MIDCENTURY WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE FOR CHILDREN AND YOUTH, FRANK H. WOODS, JR., CHAIRMAN. 1952. Pp. 198. (Copies may be obtained from Illinois Commission on Children and Youth, 123 West Madison Street, 12th floor, Chicago 2, Illinois.)

This *Report*, which the Governor's Committee for Illinois on the Midcentury White House Conference has recently released, will be of interest to those working with and for children in the fields of health, education, recreation, public and private welfare, religion, protective and cor-

rectional services, vocational guidance, and employment. The *Report* deals with conditions among three million children and youth in Illinois with recommendations for improvement. Information came from parents, teachers, doctors, social workers, lawyers, clergy, farm and home demonstration agents, and children themselves in the state's 102 counties. In its title *Children and Youth in Illinois* the study follows the White House Conference focus on the "whole" child—his spiritual, emotional, intellectual, and physical needs in the process of growing up.

Although recent advances in legislation and services for children are pointed out, the *Report* emphasizes improvements still needed. With special stress on the home as the foundation for a child's healthy personality development, the committee strongly urges the strengthening and expansion of educational programs for family living. Listed as priority needs throughout the state are more family counseling agencies, mental hygiene services, child-guidance clinics, and counseling programs in the schools. The committee recommends an extension of community effort to "reduce the number of broken homes."

It is estimated that in Chicago alone over forty thousand children live in "blighted areas," and the expansion of programs promoting slum clearance and new housing for low-income families and for rural families is urged.

The *Report* shows that, throughout the state, low-income families are related to high delinquency, frequency of disabling disease, and early school dropouts, suggesting that financial strain takes its toll in young children.

The committee thinks further study should be made of children's allowances. Members would like to see the unemployment compensation laws revised to provide supplementary amounts for minor children and a system of cash benefits established to help workers for wage losses not covered under existing laws.

Among the important points covered by the *Report* are the following:

While the adoption law was strengthened in 1945, in 1949 in the area around Chicago, 50 per cent of the adoptions were made without a social agency study.

Although it is no longer legal in Illinois for a youth under 16 to be employed during school hours, there is no law to protect boys aged 16 and over from working unlimited hours or engaging in dangerous employment.

A child offender over the age of 10 in Illinois may be prosecuted and punished in the same manner as an adult. The committee urges closer kinship be-

tween law enforcement agencies and social services and children's psychiatric clinics.

The *Report* also points out that the role of the school is expanding to include not only the imparting of skills and knowledge but preparation for co-operative living in a democratic society. For this reason teacher-training programs must include more attention to child development, mental hygiene, and the diagnosis and treatment of personalities difficulties. The committee recommends appointment of an advisory committee to the Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction, which would include educators, doctors, psychologists, and social workers.

It was found that not more than 50 per cent of the young people in the state have recreation services within their reach. And there is a tremendous demand not only for more playgrounds but for better-planned and professionally staffed programs. The creation of a state-wide program to strengthen recreation is recommended.

The committee notes the declining death rate in childhood—3 per cent for children in their first year—but points to the 5,000 babies who die annually as a considerable group for further preventive efforts. It calls attention to the difference in death rates of white and non-white children (39.5 deaths per 1000 live births among the nonwhite as compared to 26.2 among white) and points out the unequal distribution of medical facilities between city and rural areas.

The committee found that, although there is wide agreement on the importance of religious experience in the growing-up process, not more than half the children in the state are now included in church programs; and the *Report* stresses the importance of trained leaders and counselors for church groups and calls for non-segregated church programs for children and youth.

The need for more staff and in many instances for better qualified staff is emphasized throughout the *Report*. The committee urges "that the problems of increasing the supply, improving the distribution and raising the quality of professional personnel for children's work in Illinois be accepted for study by the appropriate professional organizations."

The recommendations at the end of each section of the *Report* are directed to local organizations, agencies, and groups; others relate to the functioning of public agencies; still others re-

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An important recommendation relates to the appointment by the Governor of an Illinois Commission on Children and Youth to give leadership in carrying out the recommendations of the Governor's Committee and those of the Midcentury White House Conference.

In the opening statement of the *Report*, Frank H. Woods, Jr., chairman of the Governor's White House Conference Committee, appeals to the people of Illinois to work for the goals set by the committee.

Broad public concern is needed to turn words into action. Definite planning is necessary to obtain it. Action requires the interest of individual citizens and of major community, civic, fraternal and lay organizations, as well as those now engaged in the many fields of work for Children and Youth. There is something herein for each one to undertake.

The Displaced Persons Commission, Fourth Semiannual Report to the President and the Congress, August, 1950. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1951. Pp. vi+43. \$0.20.

During the six months from January 1—June 30, 1950, covered by this *Report*, the Displaced Persons program suffered from the various discriminatory and diffuse provisions in the 1948 act. A total of 42,385 immigrants under the act were admitted to the United States during that period. On June 30, 1950, with the two statutory provisions limiting visa issuances, new provisions went into effect: (1) that 30 per cent of the visas issued be to persons who had previously been in agricultural pursuits and were to be so engaged in the United States, and to their family dependents; and (2) that 40 per cent of visas issued be to persons from *de facto* annexed areas. As a result of the statutory restrictions, large numbers of otherwise eligible Displaced Persons "were held up for reasons unrelated to their possible contribution to the American economy," and arrivals in the United States consequently fell off very substantially. It is also noted that during this period interference with the activities of a large proportion of the overseas supervisory and executive employees of the commission was caused by their being away from their work for rather long periods of time "due to investigations and hearings conducted by a Congressional committee." The

passage and approval of amendments to the 1948 act eliminated its most undesirable features, and the new law became effective on June 16, 1950.

There are a variety of refugee groups covered by the Displaced Persons Act, as amended; and the total number of visas authorized for each group is listed in this *Report*.

Prior to the amendment of the Displaced Persons Act, the Commission was charged with administrative responsibility for United Nations (International Refugee Organization) Displaced Persons, "victims of persecution," and United Nations (IRO) orphans in Germany, Austria, and Italy. The Department of State administered the program for persons of German ethnic origin. "The 1950 amendments not only added new groups to the Act's coverage, but shifted administrative responsibility in connection with some of the previously authorized groups."

From a total of well over 8 million immediately after the end of World War II, the United Nations Displaced Persons had decreased, by June 30, 1950, to 539,600 "world wide," and this decrease was a continuation of the trend of the postwar years. At first the largest numbers departing left to return to their original homelands. However, in a comparatively short time, most of those who would and could voluntarily repatriate themselves had done so. In the past several years the major reason for the decrease has been departures for new homelands. In addition, a substantial number apparently settled locally.

It is explained that the 358,100 Displaced Persons in Germany, Austria, and Italy fall into several different categories with respect to the planning which is needed for their future. The great majority are probably fully qualified for resettlement and acceptable to receiving countries. Those who will require special plans for their resettlement include a substantial group—many of whose members have highly desirable resettlement qualifications—who have only limited opportunities for resettlement because of the nature of their occupational skills or because of their personal circumstances, such as a middle-age widow with a number of young children, or a teen-age girl with younger brothers or sisters, as well as unmarried couples, with children, who cannot marry because of inability to prove the death of one of their spouses. During the first half of 1950, 104,200 United Nations Displaced Persons were resettled, the largest number coming to the United States, and the

second largest number going to Australia.

We are told that Western Europe, having absorbed very large numbers of refugees in the past, is no longer able to accept any further large labor resettlement schemes. Prospects in South America seemed to be even more limited than had been expected, and the only large scheme, that of Brazil, was apparently coming to an end. "Movements to Canada were also less than had been expected; although Australian movements showed a substantial rise. These facts combined with the lowered rate of movements to the United States, caused replanning for the over-all termination program of the IRO. The delay of the American program in meeting the possibilities inherent in it within the original time schedule was given as a primary cause for the necessity of a prolongation of the IRO."

The International Refugee Organization had plans for ending its activities on June 30, 1950. "These activities consist of providing care and maintenance for certain of those eligible under its resettlement and repatriation services, legal and political protection, occupational training and rehabilitation, guidance and counseling, international tracing service, child search, and related and subsidiary activities." But termination was difficult since there was always a "hard core" of D.P.'s to be taken care of. Therefore the IRO continued its services through 1951.

With regard to expellees and refugees of German ethnic origin we are told that "the June 1950 amendment to the Displaced Persons Act of 1948, increased the number of visas authorized under section 12 for expellees of German ethnic origin" provided for the passage of these immigrants at the expense of the United States, exempted the immigrants "from visa fees and head taxes, provided for the applicability of 'assurances' to this group, and shifted to the Commission administrative responsibility for carrying out that aspect of the program."

The expellees and refugees of German ethnic origin are "persons who under Soviet and satellite compulsion were moved, were expelled, or fled from eastern European countries and former German provinces now under Polish administration or Russian military occupation. These persons are considered of German ethnic origin by birth in a portion of Germany, or by ancestry. Approximately 12 million persons were involved in this movement. For some, the movements were voluntary and occurred as early as 1938. For others, the movement was part of the

general retreat of the Nazi armies."

At the time this report was made, some twelve million refugees and expellees were in all zones of Germany, including the Soviet Zone.

The Western occupying states have held that "the expellees and refugees of German ethnic origin are a direct problem of the German authorities," and the IRO Constitution is said to have made these people ineligible for IRO services.

German private welfare agencies are said to have worked assiduously to alleviate the material condition of the refugees. Foreign welfare agencies and especially American voluntary agencies, working with their German counterparts, have been generous in their efforts. The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund has provided funds for cod-liver oil, wool, and leather for the children. A report made by a sub-committee of the House of Representatives stated in this regard that "in view of the immensity of the problem and the remaining un-met needs . . . [the] contributions have made only a patchwork pattern. . . ."

The groups of persons covered by the amended Displaced Persons Act included: (1) Polish war veterans in England, 18,000; (2) Greek refugees, 10,000; (3) European refugees from China, 4,000; (4) refugees from Venezia Giulia, 2,000; (5) eligible displaced orphans, including Greek orphans, 5,000; (6) recent political refugees, 500. (Visas not issued to these special groups may revert to the general group of IRO displaced persons in Germany, Austria, and Italy.) There were also included 54,744 German expellees, 5,000 war orphans who resided in 18 European countries not now behind the Iron Curtain, and 15,000 displaced persons temporarily in the United States. In addition there were some "out-of-zone" refugees and children chargeable to German or Austrian quotas, adopted by American citizens while abroad.

Provision is made for the education of displaced children and youth living in International Refugee Organization camps and centers. All centers have primary and secondary schools.

Section III deals with the United States Displaced Persons Program by June 30, 1950. Thirty-four state Displaced Persons commissions and committees are said to have been formed by June 30, 1950, to serve as agencies co-ordinating the various services for Displaced Persons and expellees. "These commissions have

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been important in creating opportunities for new Americans to find homes and employment in America and in arranging for their happier integration into life in these United States."

It is explained that originally these state Displaced Persons organizations were groups or committees of citizens appointed by the governor to determine the availability of jobs and housing as a means to resettle Displaced Persons within the states. The committees are said to have been largely engaged in research, survey, and education.

This is an important and interesting report.

Report of the Ministry of Health for the Year Ended 31 March 1950. Part I: (1) The National Health Service (including chapters on International Health and on Food and Drugs), (2) Housing, Local Government, Civil Defence, Welfare, Water. (Cmd. 8342.) London: H.M. Stationery Office, 1951. Pp. xiv+228. 6s. 6d.

Because the National Health Service constituted a major new development in 1949-50, in this general report are included all the chapters relating to the development and working of the National Health Service, transferring, for this purpose, some chapters which have previously been included in the report of the Chief Medical Officer. It is therefore possible to have a picture of each branch of the Health Service, "containing in each case matters of interest and significance both for the administrative record and from the medical point of view." The *Report of the Chief Medical Officer* "On the State of the Public Health," which deals with purely medical subjects, appears in a separate report.

This *Report of the Ministry of Health* is divided into two sections: the first (pp. 1-121) deals with the new National Health Service, and the other deals with housing, local government, water, and sewage for the first time in this *Report*, since these functions have now been transferred to the Minister of Local Government and Planning and will, in future, be covered in the report of his department.

With regard to the introduction of a new National Health Service we are told that this was "an undertaking of such magnitude that the period immediately following the first full year of its operation was properly devoted to reviewing the working of the Service in practice and to the

making of adjustments where practical working experience revealed the need for them." The Minister of Health reports that while the year 1949 "produced minor readjustments rather than large new developments in the Health Service," the last few months of the period covered by this *Report* had already seen "the beginnings of reorganization."

In dealing with the National Health Service, the *Report* begins with "Hospital and Specialist Services," covering such subjects as finance, the work of the service (a general picture of the work of the hospital and specialist service in 1949 and of the staff engaged in this work is found in Appendixes I-VIII), dental treatment, provision of surgical and medical appliances, hearing aids, rehabilitation, emergency admissions, hospital nursing services, regional conferences on hospital domestic management, courses in staff management, basic training for hospital domestic workers, medical records and medical research, hospital medical and dental staffs, development of specialist services, the general practitioner and the hospitals, and hospital planning and construction.

With regard to the National Health Service in relation to general medical and dental services, pharmaceutical services, and supplementary ophthalmic services, we are told of "the widespread consequences and cross-effects resulting from the sudden release of a long pent up demand which placed a very heavy strain on manpower, finance and production." This "strain" was felt especially by dentists and nurses, that is, in the fields where there was already known to be a shortage of "professional manpower."

Another example of the sudden increase in demand was that the production of spectacles could not at first keep pace with the greatly increased demands—and arrears accumulated but were in process of being reduced at the end of the year. "The pressure on some professions, and particularly on dentists, caused them to work faster and longer than had ever been anticipated and resulted in unexpectedly high earnings." There were also higher earnings than had been intended in other fields, and the remuneration of all professions paid on the basis of fees for services in the "family practitioner" services were reviewed and adjusted during the year.

Other subjects of interest include relations with local health authorities, maternity medical services, the very considerable changes in the

prescribing habits of doctors, "remuneration of general practitioners, refresher courses, medical practices committee, regional medical service, arrangements for medical examinations."

There is also a discussion of other related subjects, including "home help" service, home nursing service, prevention of illness, care and aftercare of persons suffering from illness, ambulance services, vaccination and immunisation, and health centers. As was to be expected, there is a good treatment of maternity and child welfare services.

The *Report* of the National Health Service (Part I) also includes a section on mental health (30 pp.) but points out that during the year the mental health service was adapting itself to the

conditions of work under the National Health Service and it was not yet possible to know what the permanent effects of the new service would be. However, the *Report* suggests that there was an increased public interest in psychiatry as shown by the number of articles appearing in newspapers and journals—and by the "acceptance, both by the public and the medical profession, of the idea that the whole organism reacts to illness rather than the body and the mind separately," which has led to a "clearer understanding of the problems involved in the treatment of illness in general."

This is a very interesting *Report* but it is not possible to include in this review many of the important subjects that are discussed.

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